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ABSTRACT

The grammar, phonetics, and lexicon of Lorma, one of the Mande languages of Liberia, are described for the use of Peace Corps volunteers learning the language without teacher assistance. This handbook includes an introduction to the languages of Liberia, procedures for learning a language without assistance, guidelines for tutors, a reference grammar, a Lorma-English dictionary, and a discussion of the sound system of Mande languages. The reference grammar covers phonology, parts of speech, phrase structures, verb tenses and auxiliaries, sentence types, questions, and complex sentences. Vowels, consonants, and suprasegmentals are addressed, and listening and transcription exercises are provided. (RW)

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LORMA

A Reference Handbook
of
PHONETICS, GRAMMAR, LEXICON
AND
LEARNING PROCEDURES

BY

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for

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at

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1981

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INTRODUCTION

Most language textbooks are written with a presumption that the language would be taught under the auspices of a trained and experienced language teacher. And while this situation does prevail in the teaching of European languages, such is not the case with the lesser-known languages of the third world, particularly outside the walls of higher learning.

In the learning of African languages, it is more frequently the case that language teachers are untrained (owing to the minimal demand for such teachers) or that the learning situation is outside the classroom. Although I have no access to statistics, my impression of Peace Corps language training is such that even with 100-200 hours of language training, the learner will need additional study before being able to use the language with any facility.

Thus, it is the reality that much of the learning of African languages will inevitably take place outside the classroom in situations that are in some ways ideal, but which lack an experienced language tutor. It is this reality that gives rise to this volume for it was written for the learner who has the commitment to further his/her language study, but who lacks the general knowledge of how to proceed. It is the purpose then to give the learner the sufficient skills and knowledge to be able to carry out the orderly study of a foreign language on his/her own.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

I. Introduction to the Languages of Liberia 1
II. How to Learn a Language on Your Own 9
III. Instructions to Tutors 41
IV. Reference Grammar of Lorma 45
  A. Phonology 45
  B. Parts of Speech 58
  C. Phrase Structures 72
  D. Verb Tenses and Auxiliaries 84
  E. Sentence Types 96
  F. Questions 100
  G. Complex Sentences 103
V. Lorma Dictionary 115
VI. Learning the Sound System of Mande Languages 205
  A. The System of Sounds 205
  B. Vowels 207
  C. Consonants 213
  D. Suprasegmentals 220
  E. Listening and Transcription Exercises 223

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE LANGUAGES OF LIBERIA

In addition to English, which is widely spoken in Liberia, there are three major groups of languages spoken there: West Atlantic, Kru and Mande, all of which are subdivisions of the Niger-Congo branch of Niger-Kordafanian, the largest grouping of languages in Africa (see figure 1).

The Kru languages, spoken in both southern Liberia and the western part of the Ivory Coast, include the following Liberian languages: Krahn, Bassa, Kru, Grebo, Dei and Kuwaa (also known as Belleh). The West Atlantic languages are spoken from Liberia north to Senegal and include the Gola and Kissi, spoken in the northwestern and northern parts of Liberia respectively. These languages are virtually surrounded by languages of the third group known as the Mande languages. This group covers a much larger area than the other two, including not only the above-mentioned countries, but Guinea, Upper Volta and Mali as well.

The Mande languages have a Western branch and a (South)eastern branch. Mano and Gio (hard g) are Southeastern Mande languages spoken in Nimba county. The Western branch has two sub-branches. Northwestern and Southwestern. Both Vai, spoken in the Cape Mount area, and Manya (also known as Mandingo) spoken in the border area between Guinea and Liberia are Liberian languages of the northern branch. The other branch contains a set of very closely related languages called the Southwestern Mande languages of which only Loko is spoken outside of Liberia, in Sierra Leone. The rest, Mende, Bandi, Kpelle and Lorma are spoken in the northern part of Liberia.

The location of the Mande languages in Africa is shown in figure 1, the location of the languages of Liberia is shown in figure 2, and figure 3 shows how these languages are related.

FIGURE 1: THE DISTRIBUTION OF AFRICAN LANGUAGES

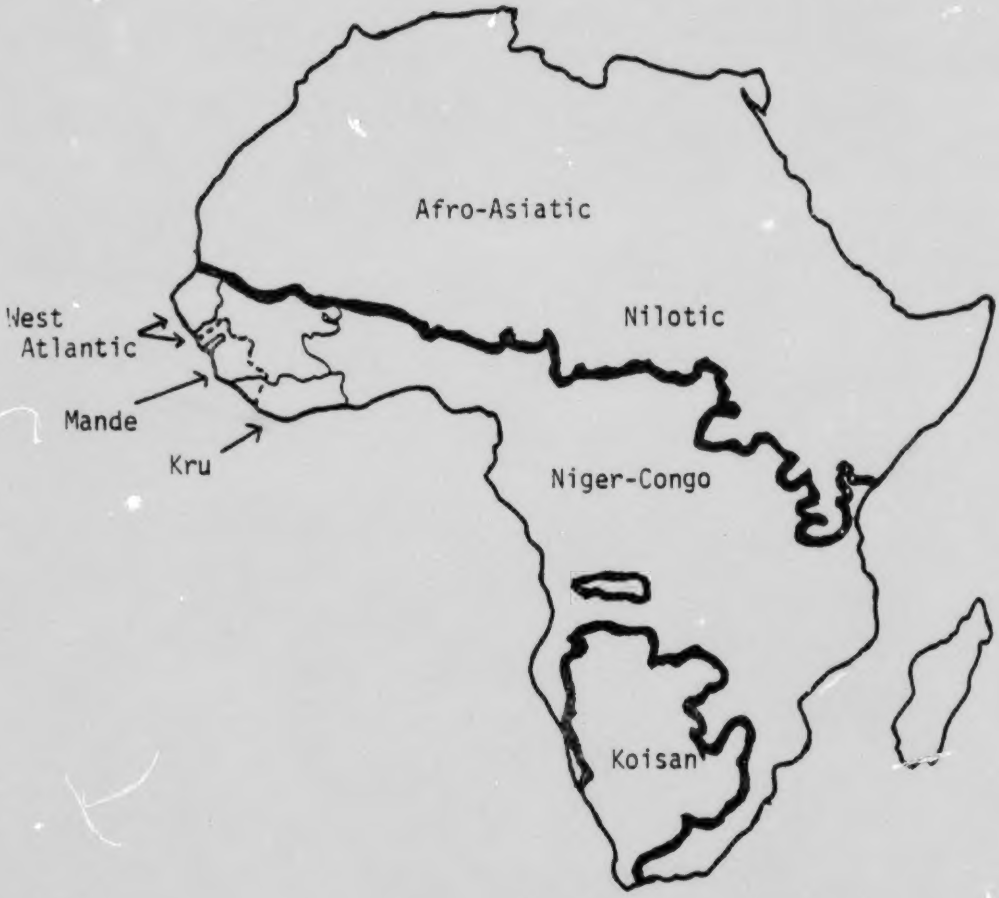

Afro-Asiatic
West Atlantic
Nilotic
Mande
Kru
Niger-Congo
Koisan

FIGURE 2: LOCATION OF LIBERIAN LANGUAGES

(from Liberia in Maps, von Gnielinski (ed. 1972)

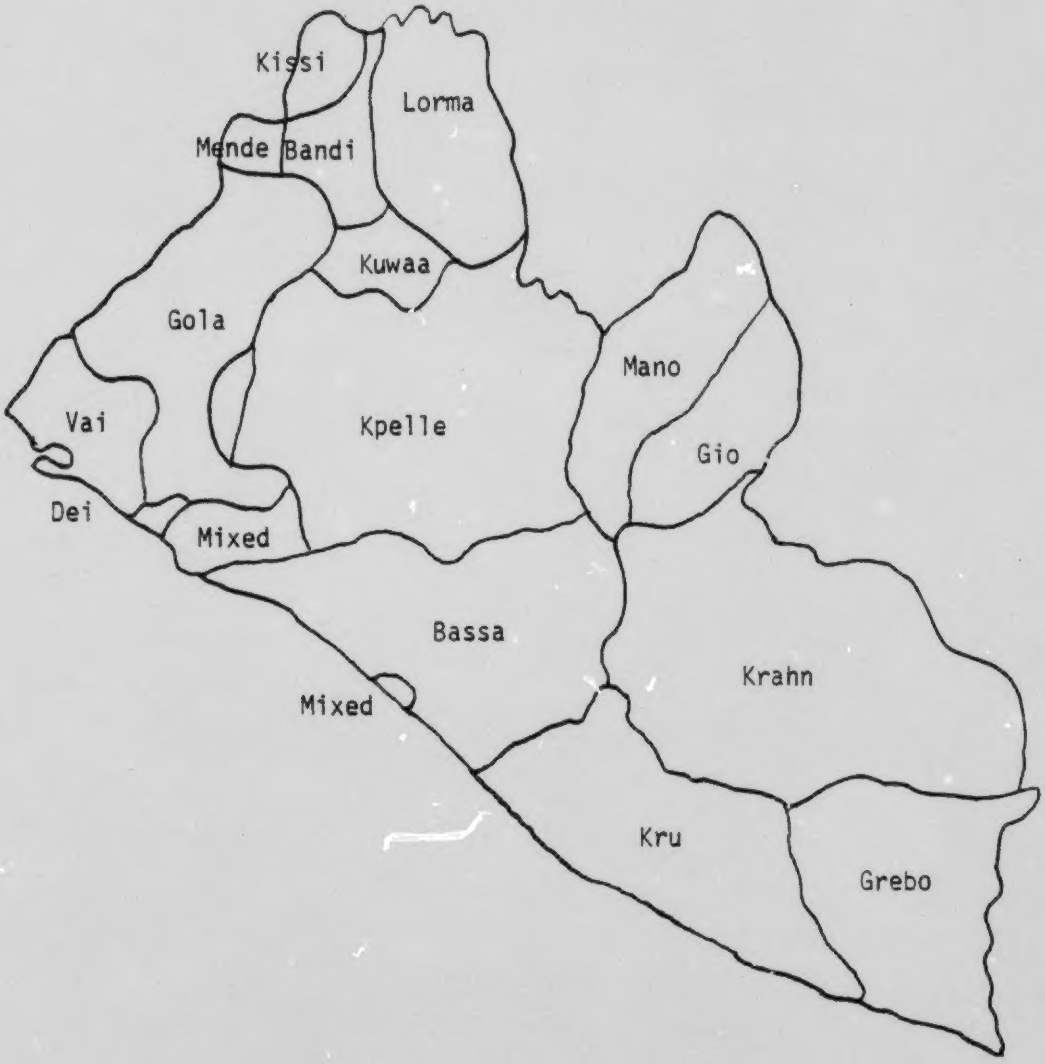

Kissi
Lorma
Mende
Bandi
Kuwaa
Gola
Mano
Vai
Kpelle
Gio
Dei
Mixed
Bassa
Krahn
Mixed
Kru
Grebo

FIGURE 3: THE RELATEDNESS OF THE LIBERIAN LANGUAGES

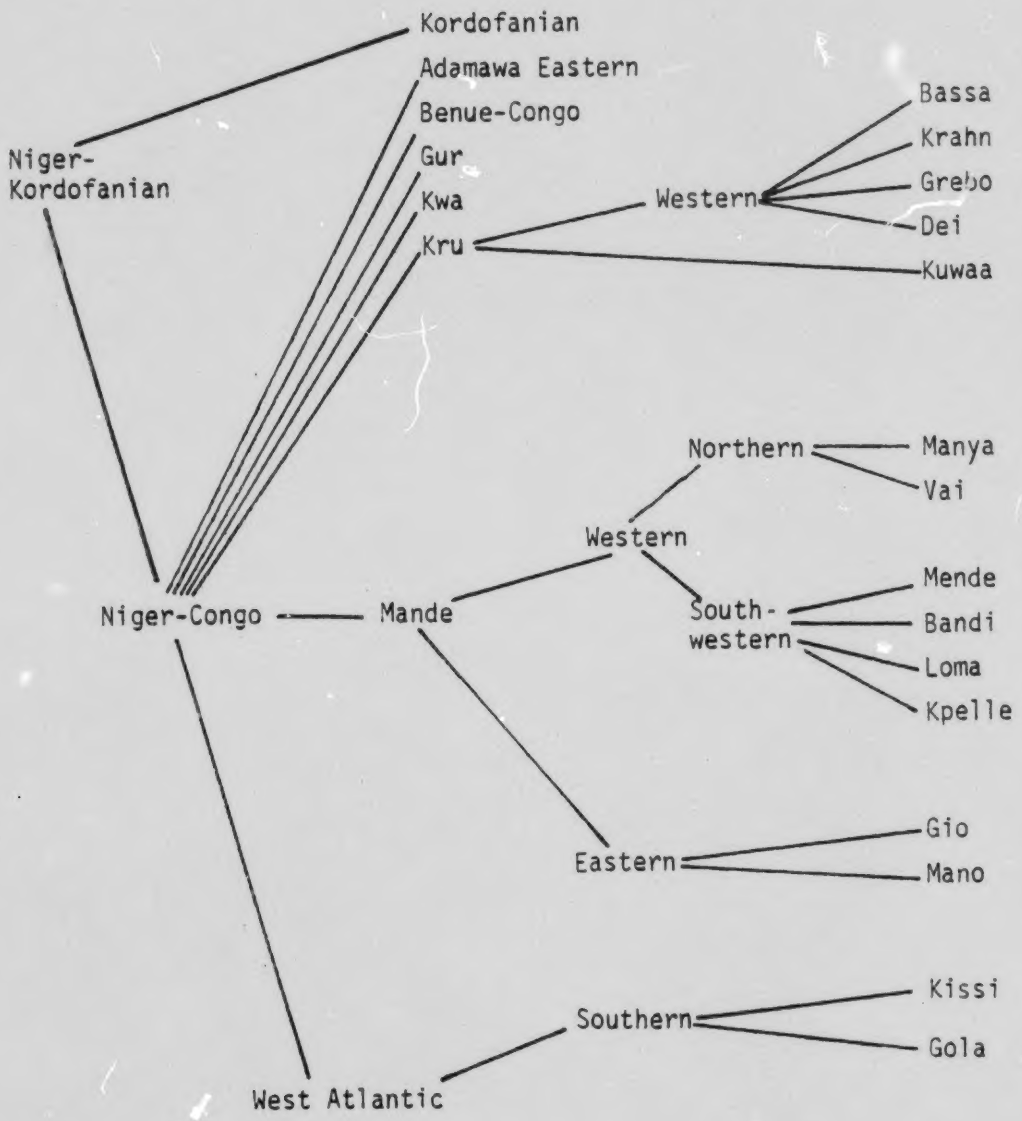

Kordofanian
Adamawa Eastern
Benue-Congo
Gur
Kwa
Kru
Niger-Kordofanian
Western
Bassa
Krahn
Grebo
Dei
Kuwaa
Northern
Manya
Vai
Western
Mende
Bandi
Loma
Kpelle
Niger-Congo
Mande
South-western
Eastern
Gio
Mano
Southern
Kissi
Gola
West Atlantic

FIGURE (4A)

Indo-European correspondences from Greenberg (1957:42)

LANGUAGE	ONE	TWO	THREE	HEAD	EYE	EAR	NOSE	MOUTH	TOOTH
Breton	ünan	dau	tri	penn	lagad	skuarn	fri	genu	dant
Irish	ö:n	dɔ:	tri	kjan	su:lj	kluəs	srɛ:n	bjal	fjakalj
Welsh	in	daɨ	tri	pen	bləgad	klist	truin	keg	dant
Danish	en	to:ˀ	tre:ˀ	ho:dhə	əjə	o:rə	na:sə	monˀ	tanˀ
Swedish	en	tvo	tre	hüvud	öga	öra	näsa	mun	tand
Dutch	e:n	tve:	dri:	ho:ft	o:x	o:r	nö:s	mont	tant
English	wən	tuw	θrij	hed	aj	ihr	nowz	mawθ	tuwθ
German	ajns	tsvaj	draj	kopf	augə	o:r	na:ze	munt	tsa:n
French	œ̃, yn	dö	trwa	tɛ:t	œ̃l/jö	orɛ:j	ne	buuš	dã
Italian	uno, una	due	tre	tɛsta	ɔkkjo	orekkjo	naso	bokka	dɛnte
Spanish	un, una	dos	tres	kabesa	oxo	orex	naso	boka	diɛnte
Rumanian	un	doj	trej	kap	okju	ureke	nas	gurə	dinte
Albanian	n'ə	du	tre	kokɔ	sü	vesh	hundə	goja	dbəmɔ
Greek	enas	dhjo	tris	kefáli	máti	aftí	míti	stóma	dbóndi
Lithuanian	vienas	du	tris	galva	akis	ausis	nosis	burna	dantis
Latvian	viens	divi	tri:s	galva	atss	auss	deguns	mute	zobs
Polish	jeden	dva	tši	glova	oko	uxo	nos	usta, gěba	zöb
Czech	jeden	dva	tri	hlava	oko	uxo	nɔs	usta	zup
Russian	adjin	dva, dvje	trji	galava	oko	uxo	nos	rot	zup
Bulgarian	edin	dva	tri	glava	oko	uxo	nos	usta	zəb
Serbo-Cro-atian	jedan	dva	tri	glava	oko	Uhɔ	nos̥	usta	zub
Finnish	üksi	kaksi	kolme	pa:	sihnä	korva	nenä	su:	hammas
Estonian	üks	kaks	kolm	pea	silm	wilja-pea	nina	su:	hammas
Hungarian	ed	ke:t	ha:rom	fÜ:, fej	sem	fül	orr	sa:j	fog
Basque	bat	bi	hirÜr	bÜrÜ	begi	belari	südÜr	aho	orts

FIGURE (4B)

Some West African Language Correspondences

LANGUAGE	ONE	TWO	THREE	EAR	EYE	MOUTH	TOOTH	HEAD	NOSE
Fulbe	do	ɗiɗi	tati	nofru	vitere	hunnuko	nyiire	hoorɛ	kinal
Biafada	numa	bihe	bilvo	nufa	-girɛ	musu	keede	gaga	-sini
Themne	-in	rɛŋ	-sas	lens	-fɔr	-seŋ	-sek	-bump	sot
Limba	funte	taae	tatat	ifa	-ifa	-foti	tilti	kafa	peren
Kissi	pelɛɛ	miüü	ŋgaa	nilen	-ifɔ	sondoo	kinde	bolɛɛŋ	milindo
Bullom	bul	tin	ra	niu	-hɔl	nyɔhɔl	chaŋ	-bol	-min
Gola	gun	tiel	taal	kenu	efɛ	onya	kes'a	edi	emia
Bambara	kileŋ	fila	saba	tulo	nyiŋ	da	nyiŋ	kuŋ	nun
Dyula	kelē	fla	saba	toro	nyadɛn	da	nyi		nun
Kuranko	gɛlɛn	fla	sawa	tule	ye	de	namen		
Manyakan	kɛlɛ̃	fila	sawa	tolo	nya	da	nyi	kü	nù
Kono	ŋkele	fela	sawa	toro	ya	daa	ŋirɛ	kun	nun
Vai	dondo	fela	sagba	tolo	ja	da	nyiŋ	kun	suŋ
Sosso	kedeŋ	firiŋ	saxaŋ	tuli	yęę	dɛ	nyinni	xü	noɛm
Loko	ngila	fele	sawa	ŋguo	ŋgau	nda	ngongɔu	ngu	hokpa
Mende	ita	fele	sawa	ŋgoli	ngahü	ndo	ngongolu	ngu	hokpa
Bandi	ngila	fele	sawa	ŋgoli	ŋgasü	nda	ngongolu	ngu	sokpa
Lorma	gila	felegɔ	saagɔ	goi	gaazuvɛ	daa	niin	wun	sokpai
Kpelle	tɔnɔ	feerɛ	saaba	woli	ŋei	la	nyiŋ	ŋuŋ	süa
Mano	doo	peetɛ	yaaka	too	nyiɛ	le	sɔ̃	wükele	nyu
Dan	dɔ	pira	yaka	tu	nyaga	di	sü	goga	nyü
We	dɔ	pire	yaka	turu	nyawe	le-bo	so	wun	ne
Nwa	dɔ	pilɔ	a	ɓe	lon	laga	sɔ	me	nye
Mwa	dɔ	ple	yaga	trona	yirebe	di	so	moru	nyi
Bē	do	plao	ŋgaö	turun	yowore	ye	so	nwunu	nye
Guro	du	fia	yaa	tone	yüe	le	süe	mbɔ	mi
Bisa	dinne	hira	karko	tur	yer	le	sɔ	min	mii
Bobo Fing	tele	pla	saxa	turu	nyono	do	nyini	ŋwon	bi
Dei	boo	söö	tãã	lɔɔ	gire	ɲuɛɛn	ŋirɛ	duru	merã
Bassa	do	sö̃ö̃	tãã	lɔ̃	gire	uɲo	ŋirɛ	tru	mòlà
Guere	doo	sö̃ö̃	tã	nɔgu	gie	ruɔ	nye	debo	mera
Grebo	do	so̰	tã	nuuã	yiie	ɟunɔ	nye	lu	mia
Kuwaa	dee	sɔ̃ɔ̃	tãã	nɔi	sĩ	wɔ̃	kala	wulu	nyu
Akan-Twi	baako	abieŋ	abiɛsa	aso	ani	ano	ɛso	eti	ehwene
Ga	ekome	enyɔ	etɛ̃	toi	hiŋmɛi	daa	nɔ	yitso	gugɔ
Yoruba	eni	eji	ɛta	eti	oju	ɛno	envi	oli	imu

Invariably, the question of language versus dialect arises in the discussion of African languages, as in the phrase "he spoke an African dialect." The implication of this phrase is of course that there is but one African language. If we draw the recognized distinction between language and dialect, that of mutual intelligibility (if you can't understand the speech of someone, he is speaking a language different from your own, while if you can, it is a dialect of your own language) then the notion of dialect discussed earlier is quite wrong. By the above definition, Africa has somewhere between 1000 - 1500 distinct languages (estimates vary). Many of these languages also have several dialectal variants. At least four distinct dialects have been identified for Kpelle and for Lorma.

Although we may have resolved the problem of dialect, the reader may still be wondering just how closely these languages are related and in what ways they are related. The answer to this question is unfortunately quite complicated so that in the following paragraphs only a partial answer can be given.

To begin with, languages can be compared on the basis of their sound systems, their syntax, their vocabulary and their meaning (see Chapter II for definitions). The most common way to compare languages is to compare how two or more languages will represent a given word. As a general rule, the more basic words two languages have in common, the more closely the two languages are related. Figure 4 shows a comparison of some common words in European languages and in some of the languages in West Africa.

One of the assumptions behind the comparison of figure 4 and the chart in figure 3 is that of divergent development. At one time there was a single group of people who later separated into two or more groups. Once isolated, the language of the two groups developed in different ways until finally after a long period of time, they were no longer mutually intelligible. Presumably, this process has continued repeatedly and is the primary explanation for the degree of linguistic diversity in Africa today.

Yet in addition to divergence, there is also convergent development, that of two different languages becoming more similar as a result of contact and commercial intercourse. It is possible to find two distinct language groups living together, sharing not only similar words, but turns of expression and cultural items. Thus with both the processes of convergence and divergence the precise relation of any one language to another may prove to be extremely complex, much more so at least than figure 3 would have you believe.

CHAPTER II

HOW TO STUDY A MANDE LANGUAGE ON YOUR OWN

1. Introduction

People have been learning foreign languages for centuries both with formal instruction and without. This fact is at least encouraging, though at this point, history has revealed no outstanding method or approach to language learning. Here in Zorzor, I know some high school students who are studying French in school...they are getting nowhere, at the same time, there are high school students who came from other parts of Liberia who learn Lorma within a year outside their daily academic studies.

This anecdote suggests two things, 1) a formal approach does not guarantee learning and 2) an informal approach does not necessarily inhibit it. Furthermore, most efforts to determine what is the most effective method to learn language have usually concluded that the most crucial differences in classroom effectiveness center around the quality of teacher, the organization of classroom procedures and learner interest and discipline. The method involved has rarely been deemed significant.

What this evidence means is that crucial to learning a language is a well-organized learning procedure (no matter what method is involved) and hard work; the more you work, the more you learn (within reason).

What this also means is that any method can be used to learn. Nevertheless it is important that the learner be aware of the variety of these approaches and their implications.

2. Aspects of Language Learning to Consider

If you have ever studied a foreign language before, you probably encountered most of the following situations:

(a) You know what you want to say, but you don't know how to say it either because you don't know the word or how to use it;

(b) Two or three words sound alike, but have very different meanings;

(c) You figured out how to ask the question, but couldn't begin to comprehend the answer;

(d) You said something that you thought was appropriate and everybody laughed.

All of these problems are real, and represent different aspects of language learning that you need to know about.

The first problem points out that there are two modes of meaning in language: that found in words, and that found in the relationship between words. These two modes of meaning are more formally called vocabulary and syntax.

The second problem is another system, the means by which these modes of meaning are signaled. This sytem, more formally termed the sound or phonological system, concerns the contrastive sounds used by the language.

The third problem concerns an overemphasis on the production of sentences and an underemphasis on the comprehension of sentences.

The fourth problem concerns the social context in which the language is embedded, that is, what you said was technically correct in terms of (a) and (b) above, but appeared out of context. Your comment could have been humorous for any of the following reasons:

(a) Thus it was correct, but not expected. That is, since so few foreigners say the right thing at the right time in the right way that the very correctness of the response is out of context.

(b) Your comment may have been correct, but inappropriate, that is, in the specific context, another comment is required. You would no more think of greeting people at a funeral with "hi there" than you would of showing up in a bathing suit.

(c) Your comment may have been humorous for other reasons as well. It may have been correct, but carried an additional meaning. In French if you say you are full rather than satisfied you mean that you are pregnant...a strange thing to say after a fine meal, particularly for a male. When you are in the process of learning the vocabulary and syntax of a language, you can expect some surprisingly humorous developments.

(d) Your comment may have meant something other than intended. In *The Lonely African* by Colin Turnbull, one missionary is credited with saying "your bottom" rather than "good morning" because the user failed to make a tone distinction. This kind of error is normal when learning the sound system of the language.

For Lorma speakers learning English, the pronunciation of final consonants (the consonants at the end of words) are a problem. One of the general strategies which speakers use is that "when in doubt add an *l*." Thus I have heard *will* for *way*. But for good humor *dead bottle* for *dead body* (John Singler, personal communication) is supreme. Let's face it, these things are funny and the best way to deal with them is to laugh. together. You may as well, for you are certain to be next if you are serious about learning a Liberian language.

These differences may be due to pronunciation, as in the above examples or to the wrong choice of words (malaprops).

These problems then, underscore the aspects of language that you need to know about in order to effectively study language. These can be summarized as 1) the organization of language: vocabulary, syntax, phonology; 2) speaking vrs. listening; and 3) social context (usage).

3. The Organization of Language

Language consists of three subsystems: 1) phonology (the sound system of the language); 2) the lexicon (the vocabulary of the language); and 3) the syntax (the system of putting words together to make sentences). In everyday language, language consists of 1) a set of distinctive sounds, 2) a vocabulary, and 3) a grammar: a set of rules stating how sentences are formed.

3.1 Phonology (the sounds of a language)

Every language has a finite set of distinctive sounds which are used to convey meaning. These sounds are called phonemes. While the inventory of these sounds is not the same from language to language, they are similar enough in most cases not to cause problems. Yet there are inevitably cases, however, where one language makes a distinction which the other doesn't. For some reason, if these distinctions are not part of your native language they will be hard to hear and hard to produce, yet with practice they can both be heard and pronounced giving you the same access to the phonemic distinction that native speakers have. Chapter VI contains sound drills designed to help you learn to hear the differences between those sound contrasts found in Liberian languages, but not in English.

3.2 Lexicon and Syntax (vocabulary and word order)

With the distinction between lexicon and syntax as that of words and their combination into sentences, it is worth while to consider what this means. Meaning in language is of two types, that which is general and systematic, and that which is individual and idiosyncratic. For example, we can say that elephants are big and mice are small or we can say that some elephants and some mice are big for their species, or small for that matter. This way of relating size to different items is general and systematic and can be constructed by relating one word to another, that is it can be expressed syntactically.

But it is also possible to express size in another way as the following sets illustrate:

drop, puddle, pond, lake, sea, ocean
baby, child, youth, adult, aged
pebble, rock, boulder

This usage is idiosyncratic, that is: drop, puddle, etc., are not systematically related to each other in form, but are simply different words. Thus the expression of systematic and general meanings is the domain of syntax while the expression of idiosyncratic meanings is the domain of the lexicon.

3.3 Syntax:

It is important to bear in mind that the division between lexical and syntactic meanings is not exactly the same from language to language though it is nearly so. Nevertheless, we may find one language expressing a notion syntactically whereas the other uses a single word. Below are some examples:

English	Typical Mande
calf:	cow child
to dance:	to do dance
sea:	big water
house:	place where one lives
potash:	bitter salt

Thus in your exposure to a new language, you will find that what you expect to be one word is actually several. One of the nice things about Mande languages is that if you learn that the way to say "worker" is literally "farm-work-do-person" and you know the words for "farm, "work", "do" and "person", you do not have to really learn any new words, only a new combination which turns out to be easier for most people. You can also expect to find words which require several words for translation into English.

4. What Does Language Ability Entail?

Everyone has heard of someone who speaks six or seven languages. The questions that this raises are what does this entail and how did they do it.

4.1 Competence and Performance:

In order to speak a language, you have to have considerable knowledge about the language. You have to know the sound system, though perfect knowledge of it isn't absolutely necessary. You have to know some words and some syntactic rules. The question arises, how many words and how many rules?

The number of words one needs to know varies from language to language because of differences in the way concepts are expressed, whether by syntactic devices, or by word compounding or by having one word covering a wide range of concepts. But by rephrasing the question as "how many concepts are necessary?", the question can at least receive an answer, though to my knowledge little systematic study of this question has been carried out. Rather cautiously, then, I throw out the figure of 1,000 to 2,000 concepts as being necessary to comprehend 90-95% of a conversation. This percentage marks the level at which one can keep up with the general meaning of the discussion.

A language is not just a collection of words but, as we have pointed out, it also contains a syntactic system. This syntactic system consists of a set of rules about how to combine words to make sentences. The answer is that you need to know most of them, something any good language text should present. While the general set of syntactic expressions are fixed, the way they are expressed may be straightforward or complex. Plurals in English are easy, but complex in German. Pronouns in English are straightforward but complex in the Mande languages.

4.2 The Question of User Utility:

It is one thing to talk about the kind of information you need to speak a language and another to talk about how it is actually used. For example we can tell someone about how to do multiplication, which principles are involved. That is, we can say that 6 x 7 is 7 added 6 times. Yet when we ask someone "what is 6 x 7?", the answer will be given in less time than it could possibly take to add seven six times. In doing arithmetic, we found it to our advantage to memorize the individual products rather than calculate them each time we need them. The calculator, on the other hand does just the opposite.

This example is intended to emphasize that simply stating the kind of knowledge that is involved in language does not necessarily mean that this is the form in which this information is used. In language teaching, two positions have been taken. One which might be called a "deductive" approach, and the other an "inductive" approach.

The deductive approach presents the learner with a set of rules to learn. Once these rules are learned, the learner is free to construct sentences. The inductive approach argues the reverse, that if you present the learner with a set of sentences that the learner will figure out the general patterns.

This second approach usually also presumes that there is relatively less to generalize about than the first. That is, what people do in learning a language is to learn a sentence type and develop variants of it by substituting words at various places.

These two views are quite different and presume two different notions of the human mind. The deductive approach presumes that the mind is like a calculator with little memory capacity and prefers therefore to generate new information rather than store it. The inductive approach considers the mind to have a much greater capacity for memory.

In this regard, it is true that the mind has a vast capacity for memory. Think of all the experiences, events, jokes and facts you can recall. Think of the words that are available to you, these number somewhere between 10,000 and 20,000 items. What is truely remarkable about this is you can inventory them all within a split second. If I ask you which of the following are English words: "house", "tire", "fleurten", "vice"; you will have no difficulty whatsoever picking out fleurten as the non-English word. In this regard, the human mind is far superior to the computer.

It is this tremendous memory capacity that leads me to emphasize the importance of an approach which stresses the importance of the inductive approach: working with real sentences.

4.3 Integrating the Two Approaches:

This conclusion does not exclude a deductive approach however. The formal presentation of rules and generalizations can help a learner understand why a given sentence is expressed the way that it is and why each element is present. This kind of knowledge cannot be obtained directly from a native speaker of any language unless that person has been trained in linguistics. Such knowledge can be most easily obtained from the grammatical section of a language textbook which has been prepared by someone with formal linguistic training.

These rules are particularly useful in the beginning stages of language learning because they provide the learner with a set of statements with which to evaluate and interpret both incoming and outgoing sentences. However, when the learner becomes more competent in the language, to the point of actively producing and comprehending sentences in an ongoing conversation more or less spontaneously, the learner will no longer have need of these devices. That is, the kind of knowledge that they represent will have been converted into a more useable form.

5. Listening:

Much of traditional language teaching has placed great emphasis on production: the generation of sentences. This approach has implicitly assumed that if you can speak sentences, then you can also comprehend them. We are beginning to take note that these two skills (production and listening) are quite different activities and should be treated separately.

Earlier, we mentioned a problem of learning how to generate questions, but being unable to comprehend the answers. This is a typical problem of traditional approaches. At this time, language teachers are beginning to place more emphasis on being able to comprehend what is said during the earlier stages of language learning. This is not to say that no language production is emphasized, but rather that that comprehension should precede production at all times. This means that early emphasis is placed in understanding what is going on about you rather than being able to talk about it, and emphasis is placed on why a given sentence has the form that it does, rather than how to produce it.

After the learner has developed a listening fluency in certain areas, and knows what is being said and why, then is the time to encourage production of sentences for that topic.

6. Context

The process of communication involves two aspects; the message and the context in which the message is situated. A traffic light presents to us very little information (red, green and yellow) yet the context (a street intersection) permits us to provide a rich interpretation of the message: to stop, to go or to proceed with caution.

Learning a language can also be seen in this light, the message and the context. That is, in understanding a sentence, one can take advantage of the context in which the message is embedded for the interpretation of the communication as well as the message. The use of context is particularly useful for a beginning learner of a language, with only an incipient ability to interpret a message. For example, the context in which a greeting takes place is easily identifiable. The messages which can be asked are finite. The learner does not need to know the entire language, or even hear the entire sentence to know what is being said. A key word identified from a sentence may be sufficient for full comprehension of the message.

In teaching children to read, educators have found that context is very important. Beginning readers have a large amount of context (pictures) compared to the message (one sentence per page). When a child first approaches a new page, he/she will first examine the picture to delimit the range of possible messages that the sentence could represent. At one stage my son only used the first letter in each word, along with the context to construct the message. Not knowing how to recognize the words beyond the first letter, he would guess at its meaning, given the context, and pick a word that started with the same sound as the one he was reading and which made sense in the given context. Quite often he was correct and in so doing gradually built up his reading competence, but often he was not, though he might even complete a sentence having missed two or three words in the process. But the interesting thing was that if the sentence made sense given the context he would continue reading, while if it did not, he would rescan the sentence for a better reading.

The point here is not how to teach children to read, but the value of context in learning a language. This means that if you can control the context, you have a better chance of comprehending the messages.

6.1 Ways of Controlling Context

Of course, the classroom is an ideal way of controlling context. Here you can define the range of what is being expressed within very narrow limits and thereby optimize context. Some of these techniques are given as follows:

(a) Sen-sit Build Up:

In this drill, the learner is given a list of messages which will be presented to him/her, whether a list of nouns, commands, activities, numbers of anything. Ideally this list should be in the form of pictures, real objects or demonstrations. The important thing however, is that the learner knows the order of presentation.

The tutor then says the first message. (The learner should know in advance the meaning of what is being said.) If it is a command then the learner should carry it out. If it is a picture, the learner should point to the cell. If it is a thing, then the learner should point it out.

The learner should know at this point, that the tutor will either repeat the message or utter something new. If it is a new message, it has to be the second item. Once the second item has been introduced, the tutor then drills the learner on the first two messages.

At this point, the learner can expect one of two messages which are known, or if not that, a new message will be the third item on the list. When the third item is introduced, the tutor will drill the learner randomly on the first three items until the learner can identify them easily.

Then the fourth item is introduced and drilled in the same way until the list is complete.

Usually only seven items should be introduced in this way during one drill, and if more messages are to be introduced, then the messages should be divided into two drills.

(b) Practical Sentences:

This approach can also be used to drill practical sentences that the learner would like to use. Here the learner draws up a list of seven practical sentences that he/she would like to know and the tutor introduces them to the learner in the target language in that order.

(c) Comprehending a Text:

Dialog and monolog drills can be initially presented as totally unknown messages (no context). Learners then attempt to pick out what is already familiar to them from previous lessons or experience. This can profitably be repeated only two or three times.

Next the learner is allowed to look at the text to see how it is written, this helps the learner separate the flow of sounds into word sequences and will usually result in the identification of more words and more of the meaning of the sentence.

Next the learner is permitted to study the translation and go over the analysis of the text so that every aspect of the text is understood: the meaning of each word, and the reason for the presence of each element in the sentence. At this point, the learner should know what is going to be said, that is, the context has now been provided, but the usefulness of the text has not yet been exhausted.

The learner can listen to the text again, following along the written text, but this time he/she should be aware of what is being said and should know the meaning of each sentence. In order to do this, it may be necessary to hear the text several times, or to refer back to the analysis to be sure.

Finally, the learner can listen to the text without the use of written material, and should continue to do so until comprehension is 100%.

These texts should be returned periodically to be sure that comprehension is retained, and to reinforce the retention of this knowledge.

NOTE: To repeat a text verbatum is a virtual impossibility for most tutors, either due to bordom or to lack of experience in reading the language you are studying. For this reason it is preferable to record the text initially and rely on your recorder for repetitions rather than your tutor.

By the time the learner has gotten this far, he/she will know a lot of the language even though he/she still cannot produce it. Nevertheless, the production stage will be a lot easier because of this breakdown.

(d) Translation Drills:

One of the problems in production as well as recognition is figuring out or knowing how things would be said in a language. One method is trial and error, (learner says something and is, if lucky, corrected). An alternative to this is the translation drill. The learner either writes a composition in English for the learner to translate, or asks the learner to translate sentence by sentence. Here the learner knows what is going to be said and should have some idea of the words to be used and the kind of construction involved. Thus when the sentence appears, most of the context has already been provided.

Such drills should be taped, so that they can be reused.

(e) Known Event:

Here the learner asks the tutor to talk about a commonly shared event, such as going to the market, visiting a friend's house, or even a folktale told in English. Again the learner will have narrowed the range of contexts and should be able to interpret the message more richly than otherwise.

(f) Picture Drills:

Another way of controlling the context is to use a picture of some scene or activity that the learner is (1) interested in learning about or (2) has some familiarity with already. The learner then asks the tutor to talk about the picture or asks the tutor questions about the picture.

(g) Eavesdropping:

If you find yourself in a situation where the language is being spoken, e.g. a bar, in a taxi, or cookshop, listen to the language with the aim of trying to pick words you know and getting a general idea of what the conversation is about.

(h) Outside the classroom there are also techniques which can be used to narrow the context. One is to place one's self in a place where a known activity will take place. Greetings, marketing, bartering and so forth. When I was in Mexico City a few years ago, I had at my grasp very little Spanish, but I did know the seeming useless sentence "where is the post office?" Well, I found the post office, walked about a block away and asked my question. I knew what the answer had to be so I was able to figure out what the Spanish had to mean. Then I moved two blocks away and repeated the drill. Variations to this kind of exercise are limited only by lack of imagination.

We cannot underestimate the important role that memory has in language learning. We have already suggested that to have a minimum operating capacity a user must have a minimum of 1,000 to 2,000 concepts available for use both in recognition and production, as well as the understanding of how these words are organized into sentences (syntax).

In describing how to develop recognition skills, we suggested that the learner should spend considerable time listening in context: sentences should appear in a context in which their meaning would be clear, words should appear in the context of a sentence. This approach also suggests developing a familiarity with a fixed number of sentences.

Just think what this means: that while the specific goal of the exercise was the recognition of the given words, it is clear that in addition familiarity with these words has developed so that they might be recognized in other contexts. Furthermore, the specific sentences learned serve as the basis for recognizing a set of sister sentences in which only one word has been changed so that, even if the learner does not know the new word, the sentence may be understood due to context. Finally, the learner has learned to listen, a technique which will provide the primary source of new information about the language.

7. Learning Production

But production deserves its due. One cannot go around listening all the time, though I suspect one would be better off with an ability to comprehend what was going on about than with an ability to talk about it. Anyway, learning to produce sentences is also an important language ability.

To this end, particulararily during the beginning we recommend that sentences as a whole be memorized. Now everyone claims that they have a weak memory and that memorizing scores of sentences is a real impossibility. Yet such is not the case, though one's language learning memory may not be operating at full capacity. That is, whether if is true or not, one should take the view that one's brain is like a muscle (an increasingly popular view) and that the more you exercise it, the stronger it gets. In partial support of this view is a report by August Schliemann, the archaeologist who discovered Troy, who incidentally claimed that he had a weak memory. Source: Ilios by Henry Schliemann. 1880; London, John Murry).

First of all I took pains to learn to write legibly, and this I succeded in doing after twenty lessons from the famous caligraphist Magnée, of Brussels. Afterwards, in order to improve my position, I applied myself to the study of modern languages. My annual salary amounted only to 800 francs (£32), half of which I spent upon my studies; on the other half I lived---miserably enough, to be sure. My lodging, which cost 8 francs a month, was a wretched garret without a fire, where I shivered with cold in winter and was scorched with the heat in summer. My breakfast consisted of rye-meal porridge, and my dinner never cost more than twopence. But nothing spurs one on to study more than misery and the certain prospect of being able to release oneself from it by unremitting work. Besides, the desire of showing myself worthy of Minna created and developed in me a boundless courage. I applied myself with extraordinary diligence to the study of English. Necessity taught me a method which greatly facilitates the study of a language. This method consists in reading a great deal aloud, without making a translation, taking a lesson every day, constantly writing essays upon subjects of interest, correcting these under the supervision of a teacher, learning them by heart, and repeating in the next lesson what was corrected on the previous day. My memory was bad, since from my childhood it had not been exercised upon any object; but I made use of every moment, and even stole time for study. In order to acquire a good pronunciation quickly, I went twice every Sunday to the English church, and repeated to myself in a low voice every word of the clergyman's sermon. I never went on my errands, even in the rain, without having my book in my hand and learning something by heart; and I never waited at the post office without reading. By such methods I gradually strengthened my memory, and in three months' time found no difficulty in reciting from memory to my teacher, Mr. Taylor, in each day's lesson, word by word, twenty printed pages, after having read them over three times attentively. In this way I committed to memory the whole of Goldsmith's *Vicar of Wakefield* and Sir Walter Scott's *Ivanhoe*. From over-excitement I slept but little, and employed my sleepless hours at night in going over in my mind what I had read on the preceding evening. The memory being always much more concentrated at night than in the day-time, I found these repetitions at night of paramount use. Thus I succeeded in acquiring in half a year a thorough knowledge of the English language.

I then applied the same method to the study of French, the difficulties of which I overcame likewise in another six months. Of French authors I learned by heart the whole of Fenelon's *Adventures de Télemaque* and Bernardin de Saint Pierre's *Paul et Virginie*. This unremitting study had in the course of a single year strengthened my memory to such a degree, that the study of Dutch, Spanish, Italian, and Portuguese appeared very easy, and it did not take me more than six weeks to write and speak each of these languages fluently.

With the effect of the moist air of Holland, my complaint in the chest gradually disappeared during my first year's residence in Amsterdam, and it has never returned. But my passion for study caused me to neglect my mechanical occupation in the office of Mr. F. C. Quien, especially as I began to consider it beneath me. My principals would give me no promotion; they probably thought that a person who shows his incapacity for the business of a servant in an office proves thereby his unfitness for any higher duties. At last, however, through the intercession of my worthy friends, Louis Stoll of Mannheim and J. H. Ballauf of Bremen, I had on the 1st of March, 1844, the good fortune to obtain a situation as correspondent and bookkeeper in the office of Messrs. B. H. Schröder & Co. of Amsterdam, who engaged me at a salary of 1200 francs (£48); but when they saw my zeal, they added 800 francs a year more by way of encouragement. This generosity, for which I shall ever be grateful to them, was in fact the foundation of my prosperity; for, as I thought that I could make myself still more usefull by a knowledge of Russian, I set to work to learn that language also. But the only Russian books I could procure were an old grammar, a lexicon, and a bad translation of *Les Adventures de Télémaque*. In spite of all my enquiries, I could not find a teacher of Russian, since, with the exception of the Russian Vice-Consul, Mr. Tannenberg, who would not consent to give me lessons, there was not one in Amsterdam who understood a word of the language. So I betook myself to the study of it without a master, and, with the help of the grammar, I learned the Russian letters and their pronunciation in a few days. Then, following my old method, I began to write short stories of my own composition, and to learn them by heart. As I had no one to correct my work, it was, no doubt, extremely bad; but I tried at the same time to correct my mistakes by the practical exercise of learning the Russian *Adventures de Télémaque* by heart. It occurred to me that I should make more progress if I had some one to whom I could relate the adventures of Telemachus; so I hired a poor Jew for four francs a week, who had to come every evening for two hours to listen to my Russian recitations, of which he did not understand a syllable.

As the ceilings of the rooms of the common houses in Holland consist of single boards, people on the ground-floor can hear what is said in the third storey. My recitations therefore, delivered in a loud voice, annoyed the other tenants, who complained to the landlord, and twice while studying the Russian language I was forced to change my lodgings. But these inconveniences did not diminish my zeal, and in the course of six weeks I wrote my first Russian letter to Mr. Vasili Plotnikoff, the London agent for the great indigo dealers, Messrs. M.P.N. Malutin Brothers, at Moscow, and I found myself able to converse fluently with him and the Russian merchants Matweieff and Froloff, when they came to Amsterdam for the indigo auctions. After I had completed my study of the Russian language, I began to occupy myself seriously with the literatures of the languages I had learned.

8. F.S.I. Levels

There can be no doubt about it, Schliemann's system worked. Most people however would say, is this the most direct way to language mastery? Can't this approach be made more efficient? The answer is of course yes. And to explain this, we need to examine the system by which the Foreign Service Institute (FSI) determines the language competence of an individual.

The FSI examination is based on six levels ranging from S-0 (no competence) to S-5 (equivalent to that of a native speaker). The crucial level however is S-3 which is really the first stage at which the speaker has good control of the language and can continue developing language competence without special study. I call this level minimal language working capacity.

To attain an S-3 in a foreign lanuage is a real accomplishment and one which a learner who has attained this level can really feel proud of, though this should not by any means undervalue the attainment of the intermediate S-1 and S-2 levels. Furthermore, the development of these intermediate levels should be seen as targets in themselves and as steps along the way. These levels are summarized by the following self-test check list.

A CHECK LIST FOR SELF-APPRAISAL OF SPEAKING PROFICIENCY

(All answers must be YES to achieve at least the level of proficiency listed on the left, except for four items at the S-3 level.)

		YES	NO
S-0+	Can you use a minimum of thirty words in appropriate contexts? (i.e., not just count or recite the days of the week).	☐	☐
S-1	Can you tell someone how to get from here to the nearest hotel, restaurant, or post office?	☐	☐
	Can you ask and tell the time of day, day of the week, date?	☐	☐
	Can you order a simple meal?	☐	☐
	Can you negotiate for a hotel room or a taxi ride at a just price?	☐	☐
	Can you buy a needed item of clothing or a bus or train ticket?	☐	☐
	Can you understand and respond correctly to form questions about your nationality, marital status, occupation, date and place of birth, etc.?	☐	☐
	Can you make a social introduction and use appropriate leave-taking expressions?	☐	☐
	Can you use the language well enough to assist someone who does not know the language in coping with the situations or problems covered by the S-1 range?	☐	☐
S-1+	Can you meet all S-1 requirements and at least three of the S-2 requirements listed below?	☐	☐
S-2	Can you describe your present or most recent job or activity in some detail?	☐	☐
	Can you give detailed information about your family, your house, the weather today?	☐	☐
	Can you give or take simple messages over the telephone? (Forget the telephone, can you give or take simple messages?)	☐	☐

	Can you hire an employee or arrange for special services, taking care of details such as salary, qualification, hours, special duties?(can you order a table from a carpenter?)	☐	☐
	Can you give a brief autobiography including a statement of your immediate plans and hopes?	☐	☐
	Can you describe the geography of the United States (or some other country) or familiar location?	☐	☐
	Can you describe the basic structure of the United States government?	☐	☐
	Can you describe the function and purpose of the organization you represent?	☐	☐
	Do you feel confident that you understand what native speakers want to tell you about the above topics at least 80% of the time?	☐	☐

S-3	Are you afraid that you will misunderstand information given to you over the telephone?	☐	☐
	(Answers should be YES)		
	Can you speak to a group of educated native speakers on a professional subject and be sure you are communicating what you want to, without obviously amusing or irritating them linguistically?	☐	☐
	Can you listen, take notes, and summarize accurately a speech or an informal discussion on your area of special interests, heard on the radio or over a public address system?	☐	☐
	Can you (on a social occasion) defend U.S. attitudes toward culture, race relations, or foreign aid from attack by an anti-American student or politician?	☐	☐
	Can you cope with such trying linguistic situations as broken-down plumbing, an undeserved traffic ticket, a serious social or diplomatic blunder made by you or a colleague?	☐	☐
	Can you follow connected discourse on a non-technical subject, e.g., a panel discussion on the status of women?	☐	☐
	Can you serve as an informal interpreter on subjects in the S-3 range?	☐	☐
	Do you feel that you have a professional command (rather than just a practical one) of the language?	☐	☐

S-3+	Can you meet all S-3 requirements and at least three of these S-4 requirements?	☐	☐
S-4	In professional discussions, is your vocabulary always extensive and precise enough to enable you to convey your exact meaning?	☐	☐
	Are you able to alter your speech deliberately, depending upon whether you are talking to university professors, close friends, employees, etc.?	☐	☐
	Can you serve as an informal interpreter for a U.S. senator or cabinet official on all diplomatic and social functions?	☐	☐
	Do you practically never make a grammatical mistake?	☐	☐
	Do you think you can carry out any job assignment as effectively in the language as in English?	☐	☐
S-4+	In discussions on all subjects, is your vocabulary always extensive and precise enough to enable you to convey your exact meaning?	☐	☐
S-5	Do native speakers react to you as they do to each other?	☐	☐
	Do you sometimes feel more at home in the language than in English?	☐	☐
	Can you do mental arithmetic in the language without slowing down?	☐	☐
	Is your vocabulary at least as extensive and precise as in English?	☐	☐
	Do you consider yourself a native speaker of the language?	☐	☐

The difference between S-2 and S-3 is really that between knowing a language so that you can use it in any context, and knowing enough of the language so that you can use it in a fixed context. This means that the skills listed under S-1 and S-2 can be specifically targeted for. That is, it is possible to define a specific set of contexts: biography, greetings, simple messages, etc. in which it is possible to build a working language competence. This can be accomplished by developing a listening ability for the range number of sentences which are likely to appear in that context and a speaking capacity for the specific skills.

By specifically targeting for these goals, it should be possible to achieve an S-1 after 50-60 hours of study (assuming that this time if being used effectively) and it should also be possible to achieve an S-2 after another 100 hours. One of the important things to remember about this phase of language study is that performance rather than competence is being measured, thus it is not how much you know, but how well you use it that counts. This is why context is so very important, for comprehension is as much anticipating what is to be said (context) as it is understanding the content of what is being said. Thus, "hanging in there" and making the effort to communicate (even if by gesture) is at least half the battle.

But while these targets are goals in themselves which the learner can aim for and accomplish, they can also be seen as steps on the way toward real language competence (S-3). The internalizing of a few hundred sentences can serve as the basic corpus of messages which can be expanded and applied to other situations.

In the communications handbook that accompanies this text, this has been the design: the first lessons are aimed at S-1 skills, while the later lessons aim at S-2 skills, so that by the time the book is completed, the learner should achieve an S-2 level and be well on the way to achieving an S-3 ability. Though in all honesty that level will require continued study.

Earlier we suggested ways of developing listening comprehension, what follows is a way of completing the use of the text, the learning of how to produce it.

9. Memorizing a Text (Layering)

Memorization of a text can be viewed as a sequential process beginning with the first word and going on to the next and so forth. Yet there is another way to view the process, and that is to see the text as a series of layers. For example, in learning to comprehend a text (discussed earlier) several steps were outlined, each one gleaning more information from the text, building up in the learner's mind layer upon layer of information about the text. When a learner has learned to comprehend a text, the job of memorizing the text is already half completed. The following steps are listed below:

A. Go over the text sentence by sentence (phrase by phrase and even word by word if necessary) with your tutor to develop as accurate a pronunciation as possible.

   One procedure for doing this is for the learner to attempt to say the sentence. If the sentence is correct the tutor will say that it is correct (or signal so by not saying anything); if the sentence is incorrect, the tutor will repeat the sentence. This should continue until the learner at that point has done his/her best.

   The major problem at this stage is the generosity of the tutor. The tutor really has to be encouraged to be critical. Thus the learner must repeatedly ask the tutor if that is the real way it is said, or whether it can be said better and should show enthusiasm in the tutor's pointing out these fine points. Otherwise the tutor will be inclined to let pronunciation slide.

B. Once the text has been gone over carefully, the text should be repeated sentence by sentence until a normal rate of speed is achieved. This can be practiced using a variety of techniques. Repeating the sentences after the tutor (or a tape recorder), along with the tutor or by tracking.

Tracking is a technique of repeating a sentence after about a second's delay. This has the effect of separating the listening part of the task from the production part of the task.

C. To be sure you are aware of all the distinctions, the learner should practice writing the sentence down after hearing it. This dictation drill should be done sentence by sentence, and in beginning stages, the sentence should be repeated as many as three times.

D. Writing down the text from memory is also a good exercise. This is a form of self-test which will give the learner a good idea of what is known and what isn't.

E. This stage should be followed by the learner attempting to say the text from memory with the tutor prompting at first.

F. The task is complete when the learner can rattle off the entire text at a normal rate of speed.

G. This exercise can be followed up by a question-answer drill in which the tutor asks questions in such a way that the memorized sentences will be the answers to the questions.

NOTE: Initial texts do not have to be long, as few as five sentences. But the learner should try to increase the length of these texts as soon as possible.

10. Self-Instructed and Learner-Centered Approaches

There are a number of reasons for emphasizing this kind of approach to language acquisition.

1. African languages are usually under such low demand for foreign language instruction that, teachers are unavailable, untrained or at best minimally trained. This means that when a tutor is hired, that person will never make the teaching of the targeted language his profession (unlike French, Chinese or Russian) and will probably be given a crash course in how to teach the language. Inevitably, this person will feel awkward because of the expectations

placed on him/her and the inadequate training given. This situation will create an avoidable tension in the classroom.

2. It is the learner who is the person who will either profit or suffer from the experience. It is the learner who has the most at stake. A successful language learning program will lead to a deeper and a more effective experience for the volunteer or other language learner. This being the case, it would be better to concentrate efforts on helping the learner to learn rather than on helping the teacher to teach.

3. Many language training programs allow insufficient time, regardless of how that time is used to allow for the achievement of a minimal speaking competence. This means that serious learners will have to continue their learning outside the classroom anyway.

4. Learners trained in a teacher-centered program in which they have little control in how the class will be run, are ill equipt to make the transition to learning on their own.

For these reasons, many educators are moving to learner-centered approaches. These approaches place more attention on the learner, giving the learner the sophistication in the types of learning techniques that are available, the ways drills should be run and so forth. While these approaches have their own drawbacks and may be slower during the initial stages, they do have a number of advantages.

1. Tutors are released from their anxiety. Their responsibilities are consonant with their training and experience. They are responsible for (1) providing a model of the target language (2) correcting learner responses and (3) running drills which the learner will help to establish. The tutor is not responsible for preparing lessons, for the success of the student, or for grading the student's progress. Thus the tutor is only responsible for what any native speaker of a language is capable of doing. This situation eliminates the tension of the classroom that arises when these responsibilities are placed on the tutor. As a result the relationship between tutor and learner is more of cooperation rather than apprehension.

2. The learner being placed fully in charge of learning no longer must bear the burden of suffering under a tutor whose methods the learner objects to. If the methods being used are unsuitable, they can be changed.

3. Given insufficient time in a training program, learners will be forced to switch to a learner-centered program anyway if they are going to continue their language learning, so why not begin a learner-centered emphasis from the start?

4. A learner who has experienced learner-center training from the start, will be well prepared to make the transition program to learning on their own.

However, learner-centered language training requires a considerable amount of training of the learner in the techniques and approaches of language learning. This cannot only be done in the abstract, but requires supervision by an experienced language teacher and ideally a textbook which is oriented toward this approach to language learning such as the following textbook. In the communications handbook accompanying this volume, each lesson is both aimed at the learner (though it can be used by a classroom teacher or a partially trained tutor) and contains detailed instructions as to how drills should be run and dialogs used. It presents the grammatical notes in terms which an untrained learner can understand and contrasts the target language with English so that the learner can see exactly where the major points of contrasts. Finally the handbook contains a set of suggestions for self-study, procedures which the learner can carry out on his/her own to continue language study.

11.1 Tutor Selection

When making the transition from a formal language training program to a totally learner-centered program, the first major task will be to locate a tutor who will be willing to help you.

In this regard, it is important for the learner to remember that a number of factors are involved in the tutor learner relationship. Some of these are listed as follows:

1. Personality. There is always the possibility of a personality clash. That for some reason the tutor and the learner do not hit it off, or for that matter they may. Factors here may be age, sex, education and cultural background as well as pure personality differences.

2. Relationship. In most cases, a learner-tutor arrangement will necessarily develop into a deeper relationship involving mutual reciprocations based on available resources. The learner will be given things, have things done for him/her as well as being informed about the workings of the community. In return, the learner can be expected to return the favor in terms of textbooks or school fees if the tutor is a student, money or other gifts. This relationship can be controlled by both parties, and it is in general sound advice to deepen the relationship slowly.

3. Knowledge of language. It is commonly accepted that the real language is known by old people, and not by young schoolboys and girls, therefore, it is often said that if you want to learn the real language it is best to contact the old people. This approach too, has its problems, however, for it may well be that old people do not know English or any other medium of common communication, therefore the learner may actually at first engage a tutor who knows English.

4. Knowledge of how to write the language. For most Liberian languages, a writing system has been established, and which is in use by at least some members of the community. If this is so, it is preferable to find a tutor who can read and write in the target language, for it will help you in recording texts and writing down sentences. You can even ask your tutor to prepare texts, dialogs and sentences for you to study.

5. Reputation of the tutor. Not everyone in the town has the same esteem in the eyes of the community. To some extent the esteem of the tutor will rub off on the learner and vise versa.

These points suggest that in engaging a tutor that one should proceed cautiously. The learner should wait until he/she is established in town or until sufficient contacts are made before showing interest in a tutor. Then one should ask respected members of the community who might be recommended. (Hiring someone without a recommendation is a real gamble.) One might ask other volunteers, teachers, your landlord, village head, pastor or other such persons.

It is always good to not commit one's self too soon. That is by saying that the period is temporary, for a few weeks only or that one wants to try a number of people, one can avoid the problem of being stuck with someone who isn't working or of the embarrassment of having to fire someone.

Finally, when the learner has found a tutor with whom he/she feels confident, the arrangement can be made more permanant. It is only at this time that the learner should gradually allow the relationship to deepen.

11.2 Organizing a Learning Schedule

The most important point to be made here is consistancy. That is whatever program the learner decided to set up, it should be followed religiously. It is far better to maintain a modest commitment of only a few hours or even less than to set a schedule of learning that is too ambitious to keep. The learner should endeavor to establish learning times that are unlikely to be disturbed by special events, and in the event that they are, the language session should be rescheduled.

The second most important thing is to structure the sessions so that the learner and the tutor are aware of what is supposed to take place during the session and what is supposed to be done by the learner as preparation or follow-up. The following schedule is designed for a learning session involving three contact periods per week. This structure is probably too ambitious for the learner who is also holding down an 8 hour job, but if followed will allow the learner to progress rapidly. In the event that the learner has less time to commit to the learning of the language, the schedule can be pared down.

A well-written language textbook ought to have a large number of drills that can be used in the self-instructional mode. Most such textbooks are organized so that a chapter be completed each week by a class meeting five hours per week. The following outline suggests one way in which a textbook chapter can be organized into a weekly lesson plan.

11.3 Use of a Spoken Dialog

Class Period #1	(1) Listen to the dialog with book closed, for comprehension. Record the dialog with a cassette tape recorder for later use. (2) Listen to the dialog, this time following the book (listening for word-divisions and other phonological cues). (3) Analyze the dialog for content. Work with your tutor if necessary so that you understand the full meaning and structure of each sentence.
Homework #1	(1) Listen to the dialog on the cassette recorder for comprehension so that each sentence is correctly identified and each word is heard as a separate entity. (2) Repeat the above as often as is necessary. If the structure of the dialog is unclear, return to the written text, following the spoken dialog word by word until it becomes clear. (3) Write the dialog several times, copying directly from the text (not from memory). (4) Enter new vocabulary items into your notebook.
Class Period #2	(1) Listen again to the dialog spoken by the tutor. (2) Practice saying each sentence with the tutor (using a backward buildup if necessary) until each sentence of the dialog is said flawlessly at a normal rate. (3) Practice dialog with tutor or with other learners in the class.

Homework #2	(1)	Memorize dialog for following class. For beginners this dialog will be quite short (3-4 lines) but by the end of the first year, these dialogs will enlarge to about 20 lines per week.
Class Period #3	(1)	Use the dialog in class. Remember to simulate the context of the dialog completely; stand, sit, look the other person in the eye at the appropriate times, use props.
	(2)	Develop variations on the dialog using word substitution or sentence "transformation" as appropriate to your level of knowledge.

11.4 Use of Written Texts

Written texts should consist of short (ten-sentence) descriptions, stories relevant to a specific context. As the course progresses, the texts will become longer.

Class Period #1	(1)	Presentation, recording and analysis of the text.
Homework #1	(1)	Listening comprehension of the text (sentences as units, words as discrete entities) and the writing out of the text (not from memory).
Class Period #2	(1)	Practice in hearing the text with phonemic accuracy, practice in saying the text at normal speed with phonemic accuracy.
Homework #2	(1)	Memorization of the text (now that it is understood both syntactically and phonetically). This will involve writing it out, saying it orally, and tracking the taped version to achieve normal speed and timing.
Class Period #3	(1)	Recitation of text orally and/or writing it down from memory.
Homework #3	(1)	Correction of noted errors.

11.5 Use of structural drills

All drills should be taped for home listening and practice.

1) Phonological drills:

Basic phonological transcription can be learned through dictation exercises. Errors in these dictation exercises will reveal problem areas in phonemic discrimination.

In consultation with the language coordinator and the textbook, discrimination drills, including minimal pair exercises can be prescribed, recorded and used, both in class and at home.

It is important to remember that learners must be able to hear phonemic differences before they can be expected to articulate them.

Once phonemic differences are mastered, accuracy can be further improved through transcription exercises. Articulation can be further improved through dialog and text repetition, tracing and memorization.

2) Syntactic Drills:

Each drill begins with listening comprehension. It is important that learners comprehend what is going on: the purpose of the drill, the meaning of the words and constructions involved, and what they are supposed to do with it.

Once the drill is understood, learners should go through the drill, repeating each sentence after the tutor if necessary until normal speed and accurate pronunciations are achieved.

The drill is run according to the specifications given in the textbook. Answers and responses must be given at normal speed. If that is impossible, either go back to the preceeding step or abandon the drill and consult with the language coordinator. The drill should be practiced until it is carried out perfectly, though this mastery need not be achieved during the first running of the drill in class.

3) Vocabulary:

A minimum of 40 lexical concepts should be acquired each week. These may come from the text or from the genralized vocabulary lists.

Several types of drills have been developed for the learning of vocabulary in the Communications Handbook companion volume. Space does not permit a detailed statement of these drills, but the following list is indicative of the types involved.

(a) vocabulary
(b) flash cards with pictures on one side
(c) related vocabulary lists
(d) the sens-it-cell

12. Conclusion

This chapter has summarized the thinking, strategy and methodology involved in the study of a foreign language and has gone into the planning and construction of these learning materials. It is presented here for the express purpose of providing the learner with a general understanding of the task and the way to proceed.

CHAPTER III

INSTRUCTIONS TO TUTORS

1. General Remarks

The chances are that if you have been asked to tutor someone in a Liberian language, you probably have never taught your language to a foreigner before. If this is the case, you may be very worried because you are not sure about what to do. If you are worried, continue to read this chapter, for it contains a set of suggestions about what is important in a language learning situation.

2. Preliminary Considerations

Even before you get started, there are some important considerations, the first is the organization of the learning situation. The learning sessions have to be considered important by both the tutor and the learner. To emphasize the importance of these sessions, it is important to "mark" these learning sessions as follows.

A. Time:

The sessions should have a specific beginning time and a closing time. These times should be kept the same from week to week. There should also be a penalty for lateness and no matter what the reason, missed sessions should be made up.

B. Place:

The sessions should be held in a specified place which is considered good for learning. Tables and straight chairs are considered better than sofas and beds. Classrooms are better than homes, but homes are better for most people than bars.

C. Agenda:

There should be an agenda or class plan of what is to be done during each period. This can be prepared either by the learner or by the tutor, depending on what has been arranged. An agenda should contain a list of topics to be covered, including: (1) pages in the textbook, (2) correction of homework, (3) practice of dialog, (4) taping of dialogs, (5) vocabulary study, (6) free conversation and so forth. These agendas (technically called "lesson plans") should be stored somewhere (a file, notebook, etc.) as a record of accomplishment during the course of study.

D. Preparation/Followup

A learner should expect to do out-of-class preparation and followup for each session. This may involve studying the dialog, grammar, cultural notes, taped aspects of the class session, vocabulary work, preparation for class discussions or taking excursions into the language community to practice what has been learned. Whatever the event, the tutor and learner should agree to the preparation and followup activities, preferably in writing (see agenda) before the end of the preceding class.

3. The Role of the Tutor

In most cases, the tutor is not required to be an experienced language teacher or someone who knows a great deal about the grammar of the language being studied. Rather, what is expected of the tutor is simply what follows:

A. An ability to speak your language clearly

B. An ability to be patient

C. An ability to point out and correct mistakes.

4. Classroom Rules of Order

There are a number of rules of running a class, which if followed will help to make the class situation useful and productive.

A. Always have a session agenda and stick to the topic. (see 2C above)

B. Always begin on time and stay within agreed upon time blocks.

C. Emphasize the use of the target language. The tutor should try at first to explain things, directions, concepts and so forth in the target language using English only if absolutely necessary (the use of English is usually a hinderance rather than an aid to learning another language).

D. Drills should be run smoothly with no delays or interruptions. If the learners are taking too long to respond, it will be necessary to simplify or change the drill. The instructions for running each drill are given along with each drill in the communications handbook. A drill can be simplified either by skipping the drill altogether or by eliminating some of its complexity. One way to do this is to treat the drill like a dialog to be learned (see instructions for learning dialogs in the communications handbook). Once familiar with the content of the drill, it can then be reintroduced as a drill; this time with better results.

Another way is to have the students read the drill from the textbook, though the normal way to run a drill is without student use of textbooks. These drills should also be recorded onto tape so that they can be replayed as one of the homework activities.

If you and the class are still having trouble with a drill, ask the lanugage supervisor or whoever is in charge of the program to help you.

While many tutors think that they have to provide more than this, this is all that is truely necessary. But, at the same time, the ability to do these things is very important. Because of this, the above points are discussed in more detail below.

A. Speaking Clearly

When you speak your language to your students, you should try to speak at a normal rate of speed. This means that you should not speak too rapidly as if you were in a hurry, or too slowly, as if you were talking to a small child.

B. Being Patient

It is important to remember that learning a language is a slow process because it requires a lot of learning: not only new words, but new ways of saying things which are very different from the way that the learner is used to saying things. You will find that a learner will forget much of what you tell him and that is why you must repeat things frequently: dialogs, storys, drills and so forth. From the viewpoint of the tutor, it appears as though the learners are not very smart. This is why it is so necessary for the tutor to be very patient with the learner.

C. Correcting Responses

While it is important to be patient, it is also necessary to correct errors in the responses that learners give. If they say something incorrectly, they should be told that it is incorrect and be asked to say it again correctly. One way to do this is to simply repeat the response correctly following an incorrect response. The learner hearing this will then correct his response following the model of the tutor. If it is a matter of pronunciation, and the student is unable to pronounce it correctly after two or three tries, then the tutor should tell the learner that the pronunciation is still incorrect, but that it will be possible for him/her to correct it later on. Remember, if the student is shown that his pronunciation of certain sounds is incorrect, the chances are that the student will learn to pronounce the sounds correctly in time.

CHAPTER IV

REFERENCE GRAMMAR OF LORMA

A. PHONOLOGY

The Contrastive Sounds of Lorma.

Every language has a finite set of discrete, contrastive sounds called phonemes. Combinations or strings of these phonemes serve to represent the various words of the language which can themselves be strung together to make sentences.

Lorma phonemes are first divided into two classes: segmental and suprasegmental. Segmental phonemes themselves belong to two major classes consonants and vowels.

1. Consonants

1.1 The consonants of Lorma are given below in tabular form.

		Labial		Dental	Velar	LabioVelar
Stops	Voiceless	p		t	k	kp
	Voiced	b		d	g	
Implosive Stop		ɓ				
Fricatives	Voiceless		f	s		
	Voiced	β	v	z	ɣ	
Nasals		m		n	ŋ	
Semivowels				l	y	w

1.2 Some Lorma consonants sound almost the same as English consonants. They are: p, t, k, b, d, g, f, v, s, z, l, y, w, m, n, h. Below are some examples using these sounds in Lorma words.

p.	pàà...kill	t.	tíí...work	k.	kɛ́ɛ́...do
	péléí...path		táí...town		kɔ̀víí...county
	píví...porcupine		tɛ́ɛ́wù...chicken		kɛ́kɛ̀...uncle
b.	báálàgìì...sheep	d.	díɣíí...pot	g.	gíláá...one
	bò...say, it		dóóí		gílí...cook
	bóáí...knife		dúúí...son		gúlú...tree
f.	fóléí...sun, day	s.	sɔ́lɔ́...sew	h.	hoo...
	fɛ́lɛ́gò...two		sókpàì...nose		
	fáá...matter		sáágò...three		
v.	vàà...come	z.	zúnú...man	l.	léí...black
	vɛ̀...here		zàà...today		líí...go
	vàgɛ́...good		zówóí...doctor		láálì...Sunday
y.	yíí...heart	m.	mí...eat		
	yéé...hand		mɔ́lɔ́í...rice		
	ỹáálé...cat		máságì...chief		
w.	Wùì...Kwi, foreigner	n.	návóléí...money		
	Wóózù...a town		núúi...person		
	w̃óí...friend		nìì...this		

1.21 Lorma has no contrastive r, that is no distinction is drawn between l and r. Therefore it is possible in a word to interchange l and r without effecting its meaning. This is the reason one often hears some Lorma speakers pronounce some Lorma words containing l with an r like sound. Lorma also has the nasal semivowels ỹ and w̃. These are discussed in section

(3.2) dealing with nasal vowels. The following Lorma consonants are not found in English and may cause difficulty to the speaker of English: ɓ, β, kp, ɣ and ŋ.

1.22 ɓ is an implosive "b" and is easily confused with a plain b. By implosive, it is meant that air is drawn into the mouth rather than pushed out as in a normal b. The learner can develop an ability to discriminate between ɓ and b by using the following table and the series of drills given in section 3 of lesson 1.

ɓέ	what	bέ	for me
ɓálé	sweep	bálái	bracelet
ɓɔ́lé	drink	bóái	knife
ɓúó	short	bósú	saying
ɓɔ́lɔ́	tired	bɔ́lɔ́gìì	hat

This contrast is not made by all speakers of Lorma.

1.23 β is a balabial fricative. It is formed by bringing the two lips together or rather almost together. If differs from a v, which is formed by bringing the lower lip and the upper teeth together. This distinction is very difficult to hear and is not made by all Lorma speakers. Because this distinction is not always made by speakers, it has not been rendered in this book outside the sections dealing with consonant change.

βὲ	here	βéléí	way
βílí	throw	βílé	get down
βáágɔ̀	good		

1.24 Kp is a voiceless "labiovelar" stop. This means the articulation of this sound involves the simultaneous articulation of k and p. The sound may be approximated by saying the word cookpot but separating the syllables as follows coo-kpot. Once this is done the initial syllable should be eliminated. Kp is most likely to be confused with p.

pílɛ́	get it down	kpídì	night
pɛ́lɛ́í	house	kpɛ́lɛ́	Kpelle
pɛ́tɛ̀	see	kpɛ́ɛ́nɛ̀gíí	palm cabbage
pótè	turn it	kpólógíí	salt
púlú	behind	kpúlú	also
páláí	mud	kpádí	hot

1.25 ɣ is a voiced velar fricative. That is, it is a voiced velar sound like g (pronounced by raising the back part of the tongue against the soft palate) but unlike g it is a fricative which means that the air-stream is only partially blocked in the oral cavity. It is almost like a gargle sound. Becuase g and ɣ (called gamma) are similar, they can be confused. In other texts you will see ɣ written as gh or ǥ. (g with a hypen through it).

gílí	cook it	ɣílí	cook
géyá	buy it	ɣéyá	buy
gááɣáá	know it	ɣááɣáá	to know
gálé	break it	ɣálé	break
gálúí	rope	ɣálógìì	month
gàà	with	ɣà	on
gɔ́vɛ́í	spirit	ɣɛ̀ɛ̀	do

1.26 ŋ is the ng sound in English. But unlike English the Lorma sound ŋ may occur at the beginning of a word. It is often confused with n.

ŋámá	blood	náa	there
ŋázáí	woman	návóléí	money
ŋábúí	fire	náágɔ̀	four
ŋání	thing	níkɛ́í	cow
ŋɛ́ɛ́	laugh	nɛ́ɛ́	sweat

2. Vowels

While Lorma vowels are similar to English vowels they are not identical. For more details consult Chapter VI which is entitled Learning the Sound System of Mande Languages. The Lorma vowels are i̲, e̲, ɛ̲, a̲, ɔ̲, o̲, u̲.

i.	yìì	heart	u.	púlú	behind	a.	sáágɔ̀	three
	tíí	work		púúgɔ̀	ten		táí	town
	lìì	go		sú	in it		fáá	matter, affair
e.	zéé	hand		fólói	day			
	vè	here		bó	say			
	pélé	path, road		dóóí	wine			
ɛ.	pɛ́ɛ́	bend it		kɔ́í	war			
	kɛ́kɛ̀	uncle		kɔ́lɔ́ɛ́i	book			
	lɛ̀	not		sɔ́lɔ́	sew			

3. Suprasegmental Features

Tone, long vowels, nasalized vowels.

3.1 Tone

Lorma is a tone language which means that tone can be used to distinguish the meaning of words. This is particularly true of the Lorma pronouns where in some cases tone is the only acoustic signal used to mark the difference between two pronouns.

è̱lììzú.	You are going.
é̱lììzú.	He is going.
dɔ́tɔ́zù	his body
dɔ̀lɔ́zù	my body
gèlììní.	I am going.
gélììní.	We are going.

The tonal system of Lorma is very complex because the tones of a given word may change according to the context as do the underlined words in the following forms:

pɛ́lɛ́í	the house	péléí	the road
pɛ́lɛ́wòlègìì	the old house	péléwólégìì	the old road
pɛ́lɛ́nììnɛ̀ì	the new house	péléníínɛ́í	the new road

Here the tone of the adjectives is determined by the class of the preceding noun. Péléí 'road' is called a "high-tone" conditioning word because it causes a following word in some contexts to be high-toned, while pɛ́lɛ́í 'house' is called a low-tone conditioning word because it causes a following word in some contexts to be low-toned. In the vocabulary listing, words will be marked with either an H or an L indicating the type of influence that the word can have on the following word.

3.2 Nasalized Vowels

Many of Lorma vowels are nasalized. This means that in the production of the vowel, some of the sound passes through the nasal passage. The occurence of nasalized vowels are predictable.

3.21 After a nasal:

ŋĩ́nɛ̃́gìì	rat
nĩ́ĩ́kɛ̀ì	cow
mɔ̃̀lɔ̃́í	rice

3.22 After a nasalized consonant ỹ or w̃:

yṍw̃ṹ	bad	*nyãmũ	(hypothesized earlier form)
kṍw̃ẽ́	bee	*komĩ	(hypothesized earlier form)

The nasalized glides ỹ and w̃ are in many cases historically speaking "weakened" versions of earlier ny and m respectively.

3.23 Because the nasalization on the vowels is predictable folowing a nasal consonant, the nasal symbol ~̲ (called tilde) is not written over the vowel. Thus the above words are written as follows:

ŋínɛ́gìì	rat	nííkɛ́í	cow
mɔ́lɔ́í	rice	ỹów̃ú	bad
ków̃é	bee		

3.24 In addition to the nasalization of vowels following a nasal consonant, vowels may also acquire nasalization from a following nasal consonant. Below are some examples.

wṹŋgíí	head
pɛ̃́nsóé	pencil
wũndai	window

Again, because the nasalization of the vowel can be traced to the following consonant, it need not be written on the vowel.

3.25 A nasal consonant at the end of a syllable, as in the above examples is heard clearly when the nasal is followed by another consonant (see examples 3.24). When the nasal is at the end of a word or followed by a vowel, the consonant is not heard at all, instead a lengthened version of the nasalized vowel takes its place.

kɔ́n	[kɔ̃́ɔ̃́]	odor
pɛ́n	[pɛ̃́ɛ̃́]	pen

NOTE: Different analyses of this phenomenon of nasalization will produce different practical orthographies (writing systems): one could choose to mark nasalized vowels for example. Our approach was chosen because it eliminates the need for marking nasalization on the vowels (this is desirable because these sounds already require tone marking.) Thus, eliminating the need for two diacritics over some vowels.

3.3 Vowel Length

Lorma has both long and short vowels and while long vowels are frequently found in Lorma, they are rarely used to mark significant differences. Nevertheless, paying attention to vowel length in Lorma will help you to understand Lorma more easily and will make you more easily understood.

3.31 Nouns usually have two vowels, whether they have an intervocalic (intervening) consonant or not; without the intervocalic consonant, the vowels are usually identical.

pɛ́lɛ́í	house	séé	elephant
kówéí	foot	súɔ́	animal
kísɛ̀gíi	pepper	váá	news
kóbóí	pangolin	váí	the news
gúlúí	tree	kpóógìì	door

Note the -i or the gii at the end of the words is a definite suffix meaning roughly "the".

3.32 In addition, some verbs and most positions are monosyllabic.

ɣɛ̀	to be	bá	to be
bó	to say it	sù	in me
fɛ́	to give it	và	on

3.33 Pronouns can be long or short.

nàà or gè	I
yàà or è	you
yáá or é	he

3.34 The words for banana and chief are almost minimal pairs and point out the contrastive nature of the long-short distinction.

máságìì	chief
máázágìì	banana

3.35 A Note On Timing

Lorma is a syllable-timed language. This means that every syllable has the same duration as every other one (long vowels are considered to be two syllables). In English this is not the case because English is a stress-timed language. This means that not all syllables have the same duration. Rather, English attempts to establish equal intervals between major stresses in the sentence. In the following sentences, the words went and store receive the major sentence stress.

The reader will note when saying the following sentences that it is necessary to speed up in the longer sentences to maintain the equal timing between stresses

He went to the store.

He went to the new store.

He went quickly to the new store.

He went quickly to the new super store.

He went quickly to the big new super store.

4. Consonant Mutation

4.1 Initial Consonant Change

Lorma, like the other Southwestern Mande languages (Kpelle, Bandi, Mende and Loko) exhibits a phenomenon known as "Initial Consonant Change" (ICC) or "consonant mutation". This means that under certain conditions, the initial (first) consonant of many Lorma words or word partials will change to a different form.

4.2 The Changes

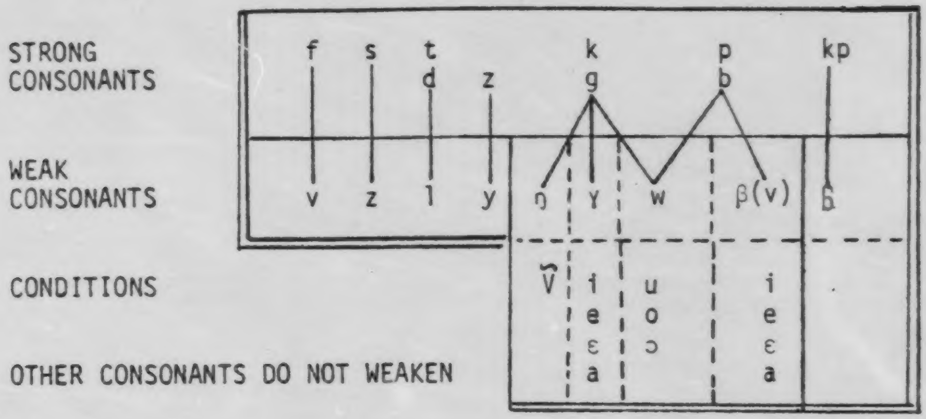
One way to understand this kind of change is to first divide Lorma consonants into two sets, one consisting of "strong" consonants and the other of "weak" consonants. A strong consonant is one that has a relatively strong obstruction in the mouth. These include *p*, *t*, *k*, *kp* (known as stops because the air in the mouth is actually stopped or blocked by the tongue, lips, etc.) and the *f*, *s*, *z* (known as fricatives because these sounds involve the obstruction of the airstream in the mouth to produce friction or turbulance which gives these sounds their distinctive sounds). A weak consonant either loses this obstruction and becomes a fricative (*ɣ*, *β*), a liquid (*l*) or a glide (*y* and *w*) or picks up voicing (*ɓ* and *v*).

Each alternation involves one strong member and one corresponding weak member. In this book, we have chosen to take the strong consonant as basic (the one that will be used for dictionary listings of words, for example) and the one which usually appears at the beginning of words. The weak variant is the one that appears when the word is part of a larger word. These conditions are elaborated in section 4.3.

To make matters worse, some strong consonants (*p*, *b*, *k* and *g*) have more than one weak variant depending on whether the vowel following the consonant is (*u*, *o* or *ɔ* (rounded vowel)), or (*i*, *e*, *ɛ* or *a* (unrounded vowel)), or in the case of *k* and *g* whether the following vowel is nasalized.

This technical description has been provided to help the learner appreciate what is involved technically in this very complex process. It is not necessary to know how the process works to learn Lorma, however. A graphic summary of these changes is given in the chart below.

4.3 Chart of Initial Consonant Changes


STRONG CONSONANTS
WEAK CONSONANTS
CONDITIONS
OTHER CONSONANTS DO NOT WEAKEN
f
s
t
d
z
k
g
p
b
kp
v
z
l
y
ŋ
ɣ
w
β(v)
ɓ
Ṽ
i
e
ɛ
a
u
o
ɔ
i
e
ɛ
a

4.4 Examples of the Initial Consonant Changes

	Strong Weak	Stong Weak	Strong Weak
	Words with i, e, ɛ, a	Words with u, o, ɔ	Words with V
*p ~ v/w	pélé ~ vélé...road	pɔ́bɔ́ ~ wɔ́bɔ́...okra	
b ~ v/w	bílí ~ vílí...goat	bùlóń ~ wùlóń...plum	
t ~ l	tɛ́ɛ́wù ~ lɛ́ɛ́wu...chicken	tówó ~ lówó...bean	
d ~ l	déé lèè...mother	dódó ~ lódó...wart	
k ~ ɣ/w	kízɛ̀ ~ ɣízɛ̀...pepper	kóló ~ wóló...salt	kaĩ, ~ ŋaĩ...seed
g ~ ɣ/w	gílɛ́wù ~ ɣílɛ́wá...dog	gúló ~ wúló...oil	giĩ, ~ niĩ...bike
kp ~ɓ	kpásá ~ ɓásá...okra		
f ~ v		fóló ~ vóló...sun	
s ~ z		súó ~ zúó...animal	
z ~ y	zíɛ́ ~ yíɛ́...water		

(*See section A.1.23 of this chapter.)

While the learners may find it helpful to conceptualize the phénomenon in terms of "strong" and "weak", they will find that these paired alternations will simply have to be learned individually.

4.5 The Conditions for Initial Consonant Changes

Whether a consonant will weaken or not depends on the preceding word or part of a word. If the word begins a phrase, or is preceded by a strengthening word, the initial consonant will remain strong. If on the other hand, the word is preceded by a weakening word the initial consonant will weaken.

Word beginning a phrase	After a strengthening word	After a weakening word
pɛ́lɛ́.....house	wùìpɛ̀lɛ̀ì.....Kwi house	zúnúvɛ̀lɛ̀ì.....man's house
	nàpɛ̀lɛ̀ì......my house	yàvɛ̀lɛ̀i.......your house
kɔ́lɔ́.....book	wùìkɔ̀lɛ̀ì.....Kwi book	zúnúwɔ̀lɔ̀ì.....man's book
	nákɔ́lɛ́í......his book	táwɔ̀lɔ̀ì.......their book
dáámíí...food	wùìdààmìì....Kwi food	zúnúlààmìì....man's food
	nàdààmìì.....my food	tálààmìì......their food

In learning when (the initial consonant of) words weaken, the learner will have to learn which words are weakening words and which words are strengthening ones. In this regard, the following comments:

a) There are more weakening words than strengthening words.

b) There is no semantic basis for the division of words into strengtheners and weakeners. Historically strengthening words are words which once ended in a nasal consonant. This protected the following consonant from weakening. Weakening words on the other hand, were words which did not end in a nasal consonant but ended in a vowel, and it was between vowels that consonants weaken. Since that time the nasal-vowel distinction at the end of words has been lost for the most part.

c) Nouns which take a -gii definite suffix, máságìì, kpáságìì, are strengtheners while nouns which take and -i definite suffix are weakening words.

d) The first and third person pronouns, often represented by simply a tone on the next word, are strengtheners, whereas the remaining pronouns are always weakeners.

(Note: originally the first and third singular pronouns were nasal consonants.)

B. LORMA WORDS AND PHRASES

1. Parts of Speech

In any language there are a number of types of words that differ according to the way they are used in a sentence. The most major distinction is that between nouns (entities) and verbs (processes). In addition we find that a language may also have the following categories:

Name	Function
Adjectives.	Add more information to the noun: big book.
Adverbs.	Add more information to the verb: run quickly.
Positionals.	Add information as to the location of the noun or verb: in the street. up the stairs.
Conjunctions.	Join nouns, verbs or even sentences together. John and Mary. go or come.
Pronoun.	Used to represent referenced people or things. it. I.

2. What is a Word?

2.1 Principles of Word Formation. In writing English, words are defined as a string of letters between spaces. In speaking English, the word is a unit which has only one primary (predominate) stressed syllable. An English word may be made up of one or more smaller meaningful units, some of which are also words. In the following example:

mother-li-ness

we can see the meaningful units of mother (a word in itself); -li, an affix meaning "like"; and -ness, another affix meaning "having the qualities of." Affixes are like words, but cannot appear by themselves, except in rare situations such as the present one, when we are talking about affixes. Normally we would not use -ness by itself.

Bigger words can also be made up of smaller words, rather than using one word and a series of affixes. They can be constructed of two nouns, a noun and a verb, a positional and a verb and so forth. Below are some examples.

light-house

red-dog

over-kill

after-thought

never-the-less

The word is often thought of as a semantic unit, that is it means more than just its individual parts; while the word butter-cup is composed of the words butter and cup, the relationship between the two parts often is not fully specified. That is, a buttercup could also be a cup for holding butter (cf. butterdish) or a cup made from butter (cf. butterball) or something else. We have by convention taken the compound word butter-cup to mean a flower which is cupshaped and butter yellow in color.

The distinction between whether two words constitutes two separate words, or really form a single compound word is often uncertain. This is due both to the fact that the language changes constantly with more word pairs becoming compound word units. Thus it is often difficult to decide what constitutes a word, especially when differing principles for deciding are in conflict. The principles for determining what constitutes a word have already been presented, but are listed below in summary form.

Given a sequence of two meaningful units:

1. Can the meaning be determined from the individual units themselves?
   If not, the sequence is also a word.
2. Can both units stand by themselves?
   If not, the sequence is a word.
3. Are there any phonological relationships between the units such as stress, tone, consonant changes?
   If so, the sequence is a word.

2.2 Lorma Word Divisions. When this set of criteria is applied to Lorma, we find that the resultant word divisions differ considerably from earlier analyses which have tended to follow the tradition of Sadler's (1951) *Untangled Lorma*. In this earlier approach, almost every independent meaningful element (technically "morpheme") was accorded word status. This earlier analysis not only runs counter to the above principles of word formation but to speaker intuition as well. The analysis offered here is an attempt to move toward a more coherent analysis of Lorma word divisions -- one that is in more accord with the general principles of word division and one that is in more accord with speaker intuition.

2.3 Principles of Lorma Word Division:

2.31 Pronouns are regarded as prefixes under the following conditions.

a) As object of a transitive verb.

gè tívɛ́tɛ̀nì	I saw them.
gè pɛtɛ̀nì*	I saw him.
ge +zúnúí vɛ́tɛ̀nì	I saw the man.

*Note: the hard consonant marks the third person singular.

+Note: a non-pronoun object is treated as a separate word. This may not be technically correct, but it is easier to follow.

b) As subject of an intransitive verb, if that pronoun is basic (that is it has not combined with any other particle).

*gèlììní	I went
gà lììzú	I am going.

*Note: Whether the subject pronouns should be part of the verb is still an open question. Thus, the writing of these pronouns as separate words (gè lììní) is also considered correct.

c) Possessive pronouns, both alienable and inalienable, are attached to the following noun.

èzòkpàì	your nose
sòkpàì	my nose
yàvɛ̀lɛ̀ì	your house
nàpɛ̀lɛ́í	my house

d) Pronouns often attach to post positions to form words:

èvɛ̀	to you
bɛ̀	to me

See the full listing of such pronouns in the table in section 4.1 for more details.

2.32 Noun phrase determiners, demonstratives and plurals are required as suffixes.

pɛ́lɛ́	house
pɛ́lɛ́í	the house
pɛ́lɛ́ínìì	this house
pɛ́lɛ́ítìɛ̀	the houses

See section 3 for more details on noun suffixes.

2.33 The post verbal elements:

-ni, -ga, -a, -vɛ, -gɛ, -su and -zu

are verbal suffixes.

pɛ́tɛ̀zù...seeing

pɛ́tɛ̀nì...saw

pɛ́tɛ̀à

kpádívɛ́...it is hot

lóósù...building

lóónì...built

lóógà...have built

págɛ̀...it is good

See section _6_ for more details on verb suffixes.

2.34 Post positionals are regarded as verbal and nominal suffixes.

másábɛ̀	for a chief
pɛ́lɛ́ímà	on the house.

Note: The combination of a pronoun and a post position results in a free word (see 2.31 above).

2.35 Adjectives

When adjectives are used to modify a noun, the adjective is treated as an affix. This may seem strange to the speaker of English, but given the principles of word formation in B.2.1 this appears to be the case.

gúlúwòòzàgìì	tall tree
kpáságwàlàì	big okra

Adjective formation is discussed in section C.1.1 in more detail.

2.36 As in English, compounds constitute single words, even though their independent constituents are also free words.

kɔ́lɔ́vɛ́lɛ́í	school	(book house)
kpɔ́lɔ́w̃áláí	soda	(bitter salt)

Compound formation is presented in section C.1.2 in more detail.

3. The Structure of the Noun

The noun may appear by itself, or with one or more affixes.

1.	The definite	-i, -gii, -vε
2.	The demonstratives	-nii, naa
3.	The plurals	-tiε, -ga, -a, -ni

3.1 The definite suffix -i, -gii, vε.

The distinction between definite and indefinite concerns whether a member of a set (say books) has been specified. If it has, then the noun is the definite form.

I want the book on farming.

I want the book you told me about.

If the item has not been specified, then the noun is indefinite.

I want a book on farming (any book).

I saw a man walking down the street.

In Lorma there are three definite suffixes:

-gii used after strong conditioning words

máságìì	chief
gúlúwùlùgìì	greens
búíngìì	pig

-i used after most other nouns

pέlέí	house
kɔ́wέí	foot
gúlíí	tree

-vε used after words, such as body parts, indicating place.

gáázúvὲ	eye	dáávὲ	mouth
ŋέtíávὲ	world	zúw̃ávὲ	ground
tòdòlàvὲ	forehead		

If the word is a long monosyllable of the type Cii, Cei, Cee or Cai (the big C = consonant) the definite suffix is not added.

3.2 Demonstrative pronouns

There are two demonstrative pronouns, nii this and na that. They are added to the definite form of the noun.

máságììnìì	this chief	máságììnà	that chief
pɛ́lɛ́ínìì	this house	pɛ́lɛ́ínà	that house

3.3 Plurals

3.31 Lorma has three plurals. The two most common plurals are definite plural and the indefinite plural. The indefinite plural is added directly to the noun base; it has two forms: -a and ga. The -a forms follows weak-conditioning words and the -ga form follows strong-conditioning words. These two forms are illustrated below.

kpásàgìì	kpásàgà	okras	pɛ́lɛ́í	pɛ́lɛ́á	houses
máságìì	máságà	chiefs	tɛ́ɛ́	tɛ́ɛ́á	fowls
kísɛ́gìì	kísɛ́gà	peppers	péléí	péléá	roads

3.32 The definite plural is formed from the definite singular. The definite plural -tiɛ can be added directly to the definite suffix, or after the demonstrative suffix.

kíségììtìɛ̀	the peppers	kódáítìɛ̀	the mortars
kíségììnììtìɛ̀	these peppers	kódáínììtìɛ̀	these mortars
kíségììnàtìɛ̀	those peppers	kódáínàtìɛ̀	those mortars

The third type of plural is used only with people and means really "and company." Fulomoni. "Fulomo and his friends."

4. Pronouns

Lorma has a staggering number of pronouns, enough to boggle the mind of anyone, yet they are not totally without sense. This section is intended to give you a sense of the organization and logic of Lorma pronouns.

4.1 First of all, Lorma pronouns fall into five categories: (1) subject-tense pronouns, (2) possessive pronouns, (3) object pronouns, (4) positional pronoun objects and (5) other. These pronouns are given in tabular form below:

	TYPE	FIRST	SECOND	THIRD	FIRST*X	FIRST-N	SECOND	THIRD
Subject Tense	BASIC	gè	è	é	gé	dé	wò	té
	FUTURE	gà	yà	tówàà	gá	dá	wà	tá
	SHORT	gìɛ̀	yìɛ̀	yíɛ́	gíɛ́	díɛ́	wìɛ̀	tíɛ́
	HABITUAL	gɔ̀	ɔ̀	ɔ́	gɔ́	dɔ́	wɔ̀	tɔ́
	PROG.	gà	yà	tɔ́	gá	dá	wà	tá
	NEGATIVE	gɛ̀	ɛ̀	ɛ́	gɛ́	dɛ́	wɛ̀	tɛ́
Posses-ive	ALIENABLE	nà(nè)	yà(yè)	ná(nè)	gá	dá	wà	tá
	IN-"	`	è	´	gé	dé	wò	té
	OBJECT	`	è	´	gé	dé	wò	té
Positional	gao-	zù	yè	là	gíɛ́	díɛ́	wìɛ̀	tíɛ́
	POST-P	`	è	´	gíɛ́	díɛ́	wìɛ̀	tíɛ
	0 POS.	`	yè	´	gíɛ́	díɛ́	wìɛ̀	tíɛ́
	su 'in'	sù	èzù	sú	gézú	dézú	wòzù	tézú
	ma 'on'	mà	èmà	má	gémá	démá	wòmà	témá
	bɛ 'for'	bɛ̀	èvɛ̀	bɛ́	gévɛ́	dévɛ́	wòvɛ̀	tévɛ́
	pɔ 'to'	pɔ̀	éwɔ̀	pɔ́	géwɔ́	déwɔ́	wòwɔ̀	téwɔ́
	vɛ 'at'	zù	èvɛ̀	là	gévɛ́	dévɛ́	wòvɛ̀	tévɛ́
	zeya*	zèyà	èèyà	zéyá	géyá	dééyá	wèèyà	tééyá
	DEFINITE	nàì	yàì	náí	gáí(tìɛ̀)	dáí(tìɛ̀)	wàì(tìɛ̀)	táí(tìɛ̀)

*In possession of.

4.2 There are two pronouns marked "our" or "we". These pronouns differ as to whether the person being addressed is included or not, a distinction not made in English. Note, that the following sentence is ambiguous:

We are going to town.

That is, is the person to whom this sentence is being directed included in the statement or not. The above sentence has two possible Lorma translations dependent on this notion of exclusivity.

Gálíízú táízù.	We (and not you) are going to town
Dálíízú táízù.	We (including you) are going to town.

To avoid problems of ambiguity in translation, the exclusive pronoun is marked with an X subscript (e.g. We$_X$) and the inclusive pronoun is marked with an N subscript (e.g. We$_N$).

4.3 There are also two pronouns glossed as "you" or "your". Most languages draw a distinction between a singular you and a plural you. Some dialects of English have a plural you which is you all.

4.4 The purpose of the above chart is primarily for reference. That is it can be used to look up any pronoun and identify its function. This chart however serves a second purpose, namely that of showing the organization of pronouns. To help you see this organization, the following observations may be useful.

4.41 Most of the irregularity and the variation is found in the singular forms and there in the first and third persons, but most especially the third. (This observation reflects more general observation that high usage forms show the most variation in forms (Note the English varieties of the verb "to be."))

4.42 Most of the pronouns maintain their initial consonant throughout the paradigm (a paradigm is a set of parallel language forms). This is because these pronouns represent the coalescence of two different words, the first a pronoun and the second a particle (verb, postposition, etc.).

4.43 The two most basic pronoun sets appear to be the object set and the basic set, repeated below for comparison.

TYPE	FIRST	SECOND	THIRD	FIRST-X	FIRST-N	SECOND	THIRD
OBJECT	ˋ	è	ˊ	gé	dé	wò	té
BASIC	gè	è	é	gé	dé	wò	té

In fact historically, these two sets are closely related, with the basic being derivable from the object.

4.44 Given these two forms, one can see how the others were formed. The future, for example can be seen to be a contraction of the basic pronoun with some particle (quite possibly the emphatic marker ỵa or even vaa "come" which often has a future meaning in West African languages. This coalescence (merging of two sounds) involves the loss of the consonant and tone of the particle and the vowel of the pronoun e.g.,

Historic Development of the Future Pronouns

Pronoun	+	Particle	=	Future	
gè		ỵà		gà	
è		ỵà		èà	= ỵà
é		ỵà		*éá	* the pronoun tówàà is used instead.
gé		ỵà		gá	
dé		ỵà		dá	
wò		ỵà		wà	
té		ỵà		tá	

4.45 The first and third person singular pronouns have been given as low and high tone respectively. Historically, these two pronouns used to be tone bearing nasal consonants (ǹ- and ń-) bearing the same tones. Through time, the nasals were lost, but the distinctive tone shifted over to the following word (verb or position). The alienable possesive, pronouns show the vestige of these historic nasals.

Historic Development

Pronoun	+	Particle	=	Possessive
ǹ		*Ca		nà
è		Ca		èè = yà
ń		Ca		ná
gé		Ca		gá
dé		Ca		dá
wò		Ca		wà
té		Ca		tá

*Since the particle is yet to be identified in historical research, its consonant cannot yet be established. Therefore an uppercase C is used to denote the presence of a suspect consonant even though the value is unknown.

The use of most of these particles is illustrated in the Lessons in the accompanying handbook. The possessive pronouns are presented in lessons 4 and 9, the positional pronouns are in lesson 5, and the subject-tense pronouns in lessons 5, 7, 9, 10, 12 and 14.

5. Adjectives

Adjectives are used to modify nouns. In Lorma they operate very much like compounds and are discussed in that section (C). Adjectives follow the nouns they modify and precede the definite and other noun affixes.

6. Verb Forms

Lorma verbs have four principal verb forms, the base, the present participle, the (remote) past, and the past participle. These terms have been chosen because in many cases these forms parallel their English equivalents in function, though not all. Below are some examples:

	Weak Conditioning		Strong Conditioning	
	go	break-it	pass-it	catch-it
base	líí	gálé	pɛ́tɛ̀	só
present participle	líízú	gálézù	pɛ́tɛ̀sù	sósù
past	lììní	gálénì	pɛ́tɛ̀nì	sónì
past participle	lììá	gáléá	pɛ́tɛ̀gà	sógà

As in the case of nouns, there are two types of verbs, strong conditioning and weak conditioning. The strong-conditioning verbs (e.g. pétè, só) are followed by words and affixes beginning with strong consonants (su, ga) while weak conditioning words (lìì, gálé) are followed by words with weak initial consonants (zu, a). When a new verb is encountered, the learner should determine whether the verb is a strong or a weak conditioning verb. This can be done by checking the verb in the present progressive. If the verb has the -su affix, it is strong conditioning, if if has the -zu affix, it is weak conditioning.

7. Locatives

7.1 Locatives are words that locate. The most general forms of locatives are:

ná	there
vɛ	here

7.2 Another way to form a locative is by adding a positional to a noun. (see C.1.4)

pɛ̀lɛ́ + bù = pɛ́lɛ́bù...in the house

7.3 Positionals are words that indicate position. One of these positionals gàà precedes the noun it modifies and is therefore called a preposition. Most Lorma positionals follow the noun they modify and technically are termed "postpositions". The most common Lorma postpositions are listed below:

ma	on	pulu	behind
su	in	ga	on
bu	under	koba	beside
pɔ	towards	gwilɛ	edge
zeya	on hand	mazʊ	over
bɛ	for	pu	outside

7.4 The tonal behavior of these postpositions, are taken up in the next section since they operate like compounds.

nà	there
bɛ̀	here also vɛ̀

8. Adverbials

Adverbs are words that provide more information as to how or when an action is carried out. Below is a list of the more common adverbs of Lorma.

Kέ nà kɔ̀nɔ̀	Do it again.
Kέ gàa máávìlà	Do it quickly.
Kέbò gàà zìlɛ̀mà	Do it slowly.
Kέ gàa mààvìlà	Do it soon.
Kέ nà sàà	Do it now.
Kέ zàà vòléímà	Do it today.
Kέ gàà wóówùlù	Do it softly.
Kέ gàà wóówàlà	Do it loudly.
Kέ gàa págɔ̀	Do it well.
Kέ gàà nyɔ̃́wà	Do it poorly.
Kέ gàà gɛ́lɛ́gɛ́lɛ́	Do it cleverly.
Kέ gàà vɛ́lábà	Do it foolishly.
Kέ vɛ̀ bògà págɔ̀	Do it completely.

C. PHRASE STRUCTURES

Below the level of the sentence and above the level of the word there is a level of phrase. Phrases are really of two major types, noun phrases and verb phrases. These are discussed below:

1. Noun Phrases

Under the heading noun phrases we include noun and adjective phrases, noun compounds, positional phrases, and possessive phrases.

1.1 Adjective Phrases

Adjectives follow the nouns they modify. Their initial consonant, strong or weak and their tone (high or low) is determined by the tone of the preceding word. The definite affixes are then attached to the adjectives instead of the noun. Below are some examples:

1.11 Following weak consonant, low tone conditioning nouns:

málákùw̃àlàì	bitter cassava	w̃álá (WL)	bitter
pɛ́lɛ́nìnɛ̀ì	new house	níínɛ́ (WH)	new
gúlúwòòzàgìì	tall tree	kóózà (SL)	tall
ŋázánùùwòlòzáágíí	old woman	pólózáá (SH)	old
kpáléɣáíɓàànàgíí	strong cutlass	kpááná (SL)	hard
pɛ́lɛ́lèì	black house	téí (H)	black

1.12 Following weak-consonant, high-tone conditioning nouns:

ŋɛ́níw̃áláí	bitter thing	w̃álá	bitter
kótíɓáádí	hot stove	kpáádí	hot
pélévɛ́nɛ́	small road	pɛ́nɛ́	small
tááwólózáágíí	old town	kólózáá	old
péléníínɛí	new road	níínɛ́	new
zíɛ́léí	cold water	déí	cold

1.13 Following strong-consonant, low tone conditioning nouns:

másápòlòzààgìì	old chief	pólózáá	old
kpásàgwàlàì	big okra	gwálá	big
káláŋàlànììnɛ̀ì	new trunk	níínɛ́	new
báálàkòlɛ̀gíí	white sheep	kólé	white
kpálépɛ̀nɛ̀ì	small broom	pɛ́nɛ́	small

1.14 Following strong consonant, high tone conditioning nouns.

núúmùlùkpódáí	sour orange	kpódá	sour
kɔ́ɔ́kpɔ́kpáí	big neck	kpɔ́kpá	big
táávànɛ́ɛ́nɛ́ɛ́gíí	sweet snuff	nɛ́ɛ́nɛ́ɛ́	sweet
gúlúwùlùpɔ́lɔ́záágíí	old greens	pɔ́lɔ́záá	old

1.15 Adjectives can be high or low, or strong or weak conditioning words so that if more than two adjectives are strung together, their influence will be seen:

A.	weak	low	kpúwá	short
	weak	low	níínɛ́	new
	weak	high	pɛ́nɛ́	small

B.	low noun	pɛ́lɛ́í	house
	high noun	péléí	path

C.	pɛ́lɛ́ɓùwɔ̀nììnɛ̀ì	new	short	house
	péléɓúwɔ́nììnɛ̀ì	new	short	path
	pɛ́lɛ́vɛ̀nɛ̀nììnɛ̀ì	new	small	house
	pélévɛ́nɛ́nììnɛ̀ì	new	small	path

1.2 Compounding

Compounding in any language is a way of increasing vocabulary by recombining existing words in the vocabulary. In Lorma this device is used so extensively that only the simplest sentences escape the use of compounds. Below are some examples.

Compound		
Wùìtààzù	kwii-town-in	America
kɔ́lɔ́vɛ́lɛ́	book-house	school
kɔ́lɔ́vɛ́lɛ́wàlà	book-house-big	university
pɛ́lɛ́lòòfáá	house-build-business	house construction
sálévɛ̀lɛ̀	medicine-house	hospital
kpólṍwálá	salt-bitter	soda $NaHCO_3$
dááwùò	mouth-wash	tooth brush
dótózù	body-in	body (internal organs)
góízúŋɛ́ní	ear-in-thing	earring

In comprehending the strucure of compounds, there are a number of points to keep in mind.

1.21 The word order is the same as adjectival construction. That is the modifying element follows the main noun. That is why the first word must be a noun.

1.22 Any major part of speech (e.g., noun, verb, positional and adjective) may enter into a compound (see above examples.)

1.23 Since compounding is very flexible, it is frequently used for the labeling of new concepts, namely those introduced by the Kwii. The compounding process, (making new things from old) seems to be preferred over borrowing because unlike borrowing it does not involve the learning of a new word.

1.24 Those words that are borrowed seem to fall into two categories:

a) Those items for which a suitable compound is hard to construct:

lódíéí	radio
kópúí	cup
kápágíí	money (copper)
plɛ́tɛ̀ì	plate
sáápgìì	shop
fláslàìt	flashlight
káléwópú	fishcup = canned fish
bátùlùwótí	batterystone = battery

NOTE: Borrowed terms tend to take the _-gii_ suffix, that is, they are strong-conditioning words.

b) Those which appear to fit into a Lormalike compound:

Fɛlanzu	French from Français

NOTE: Any statement concerning which words are likely to be borrowed into a language can be understood only as an approximation. That is, there will be exceptions to this statement.

1.25 Compounds obey the same rules as adjectives insofar as consonant conditioning and tone conditioning are concerned. Thus anywhere in a compound, a strong conditioning word will be followed by a word with a strong initial consonant and a weak conditioning word by a weak consonant. Likewise, a word following a high tone conditioning word will have high tones. Below are some examples:

First Word Strong, Low	Wùìgìì	Wùìtààzù	America
	Zòzɔ̀gìì	Zɔ̀zɔ̀kɔ̀lɔ̀vɛ́lɛ́	Zorzor school
First Word Weak, Low	sáléí	sálévɛ̀lɛ̀ì	hospital
First Word Weak, High	káléí	káléwúlónù	fisherman (fish pull person)
First Word Weak, High	pélé	péléwópáí	main road

1.3 Positional Phrases

The term postposition may be confusing to the learner and tutor alike since postpositions seem to have the same function as preposition-do in English. This is true, the only reason they are called "post" positions is because they follow rather than precede the position which they mark.

Below is a list of the common postpositions and sample phrases:

1.	in	sú	in it	táízù	in the town
2.	on	má	on it	téévéímà	on the table
3.	over	máázù	over it	téévéímààzù	over the table
4.	beside	kóbà	beside it	téévéíkòbà	beside the table
5.	at the edge of	gwílé	at the edge of it	téévéíwìlè	at the edge of the table
6.	under	bú	under it	téévéíwù	under the table
7.	inside	bú	in it	pɛ́lɛ́íwù	in the house
8.	outside	búlú	outside it	pɛ́lɛ́íwùlù	outside the house

Locative sentences with postpositional phrases are constructed exactly in the same way as locative sentences with the locative pronoun and the locative phrase.

1.4 Possession

Lorma has two types of possession, one for inalienable objects, those such as family members and body parts which can not really exchange ownership and another termined alienable for those things that you can get rid of. (Everything else.) These two types of possession are characterized by two different types of possessive pronouns.

		Alienable	Inalienable		
Singular	my	nà	̀	<	*ǹ
	your$_s$	yà	è		
	its	ná	́	<	*ń
Plural	our$_x$	gá	gé		
	our$_n$	dá	dé		
	your$_p$	wà	wò		
	their	tá	té		

Below are some representative examples of inalienable possession:

Set 1		my ____	your ____	his ____	their ____
1.	father	kèyà	èɣèyà	kéyá	téɣèyà
2.	mother	dèè	èlèè	déé	télèè
3.	older bro	dììyɛ̀	èlììɣɛ	dííyɛ́	télììyɛ
4.	younger bro	dɛ̀ɣì	èlɛ̀ɣì	dɛ́ɣí	télɛ̀ɣì
5.	sister	sèìláí	èzèìláí	séíláí	tézèìláí
6.	son/child	dùì	èlùì	dúí	télùì
7.	daughter	dùùŋàzànúú	èlùùŋàzànúí	dúúŋàzànúí	télùùŋàzànúí

Set 2					
1.	head	wùngíí	èwùngíí	wúngíí	téwùngíí
2.	eye	gààzùvɛ̀	èɣààzùvɛ̀	gáázùvɛ̀	téɣààzùvɛ̀
3.	nose	sòkpàì	èzòkpàì	sókpàì	tézòkpàì
4.	mouth	dààvɛ̀	èlààvà	dáávɛ̀	télààvà
5.	lips	dààwòlògíí	èlààwòlògíí	dááwòlògíí	télààwòlògíí
6.	teeth	ŋììgìì	èŋììgìì	ŋíígìì	téŋììgìì
7.	ear	gòì	èwòì	góí	téwóí

8.	belly	kògíí	èwògíí	kógíí	téwògíí
9.	chest	kɛ̀kɛ̀gíí	èɣɛ̀kɛ̀gíí	kɛ́kɛ̀gíí	téɣɛ̀kɛ̀gíí
10.	ribs/side	kɛ̀kɛ̀kàmàvɛ́	èɣɛ̀kɛ̀kàmàvɛ́	kɛ́kɛ̀kàmàvɛ́	téɣɛ̀kɛ̀kàmàvɛ́
11.	back	pùlùzàmàvɛ́	èwùlùzàmàvɛ́	púlúzàmàvɛ́	téwùlùzàmàvɛ́
12.	heart	zìì	èyìì	zíí	téyìì
13.	waist	sààmàvɛ̀	èzààmàvɛ̀	sáámàvɛ̀	tézààmàvɛ̀
14.	body	dɔ̀tɔ̀zù	èlɔ̀tɔ̀zù	dɔ́tɔ́zù	télɔ̀tɔ̀zù

In contrast, to inalienable possession, alienable possession is concerned with the ownership of all other entities.

The major difference between these two types of possession is found in the possessive pronouns as can be seen in the following examples:

	house	nose
I	nàpɛ̀lɛ́í	sòkpàì
you$_s$	yàvɛ̀lɛ́í	èzòkpàì
he	nápɛ́lɛ́í	sókpàì
we$_x$	gávɛ̀lɛ́í	gézókpàì
we$_n$	dávɛ̀lɛ́í	dézókpàì
you$_p$	wàvɛ̀lɛ́í	wòzòkpàì
they	távɛ́lɛ́í	tézókpàì

The possessive pronoun can have one of two effects on the following noun: (1) it can raise the tone of the noun (3rd person singular) or (2) it can lower the tone of the following noun as can be seen in the above examples.

The act of alienable possession automatically converts the possessed noun into a high tone conditioning noun, so that the following word whether a suffix, or an adjective will be high toned.

nàmàsàgíí	my chief
nàmàsàníínɛ́í	my new chief
nàpɛ̀lɛ̀níínɛ́í	my new house

According to these rules, "my house" should have the tone pattern: nàpɛ̀lɛ̀í but it doesn't. This is because when the weak suffix is high toned, it pulls up the tone of the syllable before. Thus the derivation of the tones for my house is as follows:

nàpɛ́lɛ́í > nàpɛ̀lɛ̀-í > nàpɛ̀lɛ́í

2. Verb Phrases

2.1 The Objects of the Verb.

In the analysis of language we draw a distinction between the various noun phrases associated with a verb because of the various relationships that they can exhibit. The following English sentences illustrate some of these relationships.

1. He went to town.
2. I cooked the rice.
3. He passed the book to the man.
4. He bathed with soap.
5. She bought the cloth for her sister.

In all of these sentences, the pronoun at the beginning of the sentence serves as the subject of the sentence. Usually the subject serves as an agent, the initiator of the action of the sentence. It is also possible to have full noun phrases as subjects.

6. The mayor of Zorzor went to town.

In addition to a subject-agent relationship there may be others. Sentence 1 above does not however have another such "case-like" relationship. The phrase to town is a locative phrase (see C.1.3). Therefore, verbs which can not take additional noun phrases are termed "intransitive." That is the action of the agent (subject) does not carry through to an "object." Compare sentences (1) and (2). In (2) the action of the agent does carry through to an object (rice). The verb in (2) is termed "transitive." The object of such sentences (rice) is termed the "direct object."

In addition to the two major "case relationships" (agent and object) there are others:

a) the indirect object; the recipient of the action (sentence 3), often called "dative."

b) the instrumental; the instrument with which the action was performed, (sentence 4).

c) the benefactive; the person (usually) for whom the action was carried out (sentence 6).

This introduction to English grammar should help you to understand Lorma grammar. Because while these case-like relationships are not marked in the same way in the two languages, the same kind of relationships exist. To illustrate this, the Lorma equivalents of the above English sentences are given below.

1. élììní táázù.
2. Gè mɔ́kùlù ɣìlìnì.
3. Té kɔ́lɔ́í lévénì zúnúíwɔ̀.
4. é wúónì gàà kpóɫó.
5. e sɛ́ɣɛ́í ɣèèàní nàsìèláívɛ̀.
6. Gè kɔ́lɔ́í lévénì máságììwɔ̀.

While the same case-type relationships exist in Lorma, they are not marked in the same way, with the exception of the subject.

a) Subject-agent. In both languages the subject-agent appears as the first noun phrase in the sentence, given normal work order.

b) Object. Unlike English, the Lorma object appears before the verb. This makes Lorma an SOV (Subject Object Verb) language like Basque and Japanese as opposed to an SVO as in English.

c) The indirect object in Lorma is generally marked by the postposition pɔ ~ wɔ.

d) The instrumental object is marked by the preposition gàà.

e) The benefactive object is marked by the postposition bɛ ~ vɛ.

Unfortunately, in Lorma, things are not quite so simple as the above statements would have you believe, because Lorma has a large number of "displaced" direct objects. That is Lorma has a number of verbs which treat the direct object (as far as meaning is concerned) as the object of a postposition.

Below are some examples:

1. direct object as direct object

pɛ́lɛ̀...to see	Gè pɛ́lɛ́í vɛ́tɛ̀nì.	I saw the house.
tílí...to call	é máságìì lílínì.	He called the chief.

2. direct object as object of ba ~ va.

vón X-ba...touch	Gè vón máságììvà.	I touched the chief.
wɛ́lɛ́ X-ba...see	Gè wɛ́lɛ́ máságììvà.	I saw the chief.

3. direct object as object of ma.

bó X-ma...tell	Gè bó máságììma.	I told the chief.

4. direct object as object of gàà.

w̃óínì...	é w̃óínì gàà dáámíí.	

2.2 Verb Phrase Complements.

The term "complement" refers to a phrase or a clause that is not the subject of the sentence and which completes or complements the verb. In this section, a special type of verbal complement is introduced, one that is a full sentence in itself.

In English, there are a number of verbs which typically take sentential (sentence) complements. A partial list is given below:

1.	know	I know that you will come.
2.	see	I see that you have a lot of money.
3.	hear	I heard that he will come tomorrow.
4.	understand	I understand that he will go.
5.	urge	I urge you to attend.
6.	tell	I told him to go.
7.	make	I made them go.
8.	want	I wanted him to go.

The English examples show two types of sentential complements:

a) those which are full sentences: 1-4,

b) those which are not: 5-8.

Unlike the first four sentences, the second set of sentences contain a complement which is like a sentence, but it is not. In sentence (8) for example, the sentence is analyzed as follows:

I	want	him	to go.
subj.	verb	obj.	infinitive

However, if we examine the sentence in terms of meaning, rather than grammatical form, we see that the object of the verb want him is also semantically the subject of the infinitive to go.

The Lorma verb want: w̃oi unlike the English verb; want, follows the semantic structure rather than the syntactic structure of English. That is the syntactic structure (word order) of Lorma is much closer to its meaning than the corresponding English structure as the following example illustrates.

Gè w̃óínì gàà é lìì.
I want that he goes = I want him to go.

In these structures, the two sentences are separated by the particle gàà which has a number of meanings, the most basic being "with" though in this situation "that" appears to be the best translation.

Below are some examples:

1. Gè kɔ́ɔ́ní gàà tɔ́ɔ́ vààzù. I know that he will come.
2. Gè kɔ́ɔ́ní gàà évàànì. I know that he came.
3. Gè kɔ́ɔ́ní gàà tɔ́wàà váá. I know that he will come.
4. é bónì gàà é kɔ́ɔ́nì. He said that you know him.
5. é bónì gàà yà vààzù. He said that you are coming.
6. é bónì gàà ɛ̀lɛ̀ váázù. He said that he isn't coming.
7. é bɔ́nì gàà ɛ̀lɛ̀ váánì. He said that he didn't come.
8. é bɔ́nì gàà gèvàà. He said I should come.

9. é bɔ́nì témá gàà té kɔ́lɔ́l   He told them to read a book.
lódò.
10. é bɔ́nì má gàà é kɔ́lɔ́ lòdò.   He told him to read a book.
11. é pɛ́tɛ̀ní gíɛ́ kɔ́lɔ́ lódó.   He saw me reading a book.
12. é té vɛ́tɛ̀ní tíɛ́ kóló lódó.   He saw them reading a book.

NOTE: In the last two sentences, the gaa + pronoun have been contracted to the short form. This situation is very similar to the English use of him in this construction as discussed above.

In English, when the subject of the second sentence is the same as the subject in the second, the second pronoun is omitted. In Lorma, on the other hand, it is retained.

Gèw̃óínì gàà gè líí.
I want that I go.
I want to go.

D. VERB TENSES AND AUXILIARIES

1. Form Versus Function

The description form of Lorma verbal constructions (that is how they are put together) is quite a different thing from how they are used to convey meaning. Because of this it is preferable to first present the various verbal forms, and then state how they are used.

2. Summary of the Verb Forms:

2.1 Constructions involving the basic pronoun set:
gè, è, é, gé, dé, wò, té

A. Present/Infinitive — Negative

Present/Infinitive	Negative
gè + Verb	gɛ̀lɛ̀ + Verb

B. Perfect (recent past)

gè + Verb- $\begin{Bmatrix}\text{ga}\\ \text{a}\end{Bmatrix}$	gɛ̀lɛ̀ + Verb- $\begin{Bmatrix}\text{ga}\\ \text{a}\end{Bmatrix}$

NOTE: While this is structurally a perfect-negative, it is more like a future negative in meaning.

C. Past (remote or far past)

gè Verb-ni	gɛ̀lɛ̀ Verb-ni

D. Past Perfect

gèɣɛ̀ní Verb-ni	gɛ̀lɛ̀ ŋɛ̀ní Verb-ni

E. Past Progressive

gà ɣɛ̀ní V- $\begin{Bmatrix}\text{su}\\\text{zu}\end{Bmatrix}$	gɛ̀lɛ̀ ŋɛ̀ní Verb- $\begin{Bmatrix}\text{su}\\\text{zu}\end{Bmatrix}$

2.2 Constructions involving the Progressive Pronoun set:
gà, yà, tɔ́, gá, dá, wà, tá

A. Present Progressive

gà Verb- $\begin{Bmatrix}\text{su}\\\text{zu}\end{Bmatrix}$	gɛ̀lɛ̀ Verb- $\begin{Bmatrix}\text{su}\\\text{zu}\end{Bmatrix}$

B. Immediate Future

gà $\begin{Bmatrix}\text{lììzú}\\\text{vààzú}\end{Bmatrix}$ Verb	gɛ̀lɛ̀ $\begin{Bmatrix}\text{lììzú}\\\text{vààzú}\end{Bmatrix}$ Verb

2.3 Constructions involving the Future Pronoun Set:
gà, yà tɔ́wàà, gá, dá, wɨ̀, tá

A. Future

gà Verb	SEE PERFECT NEGATIVE ABOVE

2.4 Constructions involving the short form:
gìɛ̀, yìɛ̀, yíɛ́, gíɛ́, díɛ́, wìɛ̀, tíɛ́

gìɛ̀ Verb	NO NEGATIVE

2.5 Constructions involving the habitual/conditional form: gɔ̀, ɔ̀, ɔ́, gɔ́, dɔ́, wɔ̀, tɔ́

The Habitual/Conditional

$$\boxed{\text{g}\acute{\text{ɔ}}\quad \text{Verb}}$$

2.6 Constructions involving no Subject-Tense Pronouns:

A. Present Stative

$$\boxed{\text{Verb -}\ \begin{Bmatrix}\text{-g}\varepsilon \\ \text{-v}\varepsilon\end{Bmatrix}}$$

B. Past Stative

$$\boxed{\text{Verb -}\ \begin{Bmatrix}\text{-ga} \\ \text{-a}\end{Bmatrix}\ \text{-}\gamma\text{aa}}$$

2.7 Notes on Verbal Forms:

1. The bracketed pairs $\begin{Bmatrix}\text{-su} & \text{-ga} & \text{-g}\varepsilon \\ \text{-zu} & \text{-a} & \text{-v}\varepsilon\end{Bmatrix}$ are affixes which appear after strong-conditioning words (su, ga and gɛ) and weak-conditioning verbs (zu, a and vɛ).

2. The only difference between the progressive pronoun set (2) and the future pronoun set (3) is in the third person singular.

3. The term "infinitive" is chosen because it means that the tense involved is open, without end, infinitive; that is, it is not specified. This form is frequently used as the second of two sentences in a series.

4. While the perfect negative is structually a perfect form, its usage is more of a future negative, carrying the meaning of "can't" rather than "won't."

3. The Expression of Time

When expressing information about when an action takes place and relating it to other actions, most languages of the world have come up with a scheme much like the following.

Tense: This trichotomy can be pictorially expressed by the following time line:

PAST 'PRESENT' FUTURE →

In some languages, the past tense and the future tense may be broken up even further, as in the following illustration.

FAR PAST RECENT PAST PRESENT IMMEDIATE FUTURE FAR FUTURE →

4. Aspect

Lorma is claimed to be such a language, though an alternative interpretation is possible. This involves aspect. This notion refers to the aspect of the action: is it in progress? (i.e., progressive?) or has it been completed? (perfected, therefore the term perfect). Aspect is different from tense in that the time of the action is not expressed.

For the purposes of illustration, let the sequence XXX represent an action, then we can express the following:

1. XXX is going on now.
2. XXX will take place.
3. XXX took place

3.XXX 1. XXX 2.XXX
↑ ↑ ↑
PAST PRESENT FUTURE

With the exception of the present, aspect really requires a relationship with another sentence as the following sentences show.

1.	When you come to my house I will have eaten.	Future Perfect
2.	When you come to my house I will be eating.	Future Progressive
3.	(now) I have eaten.	Present Perfect
4.	(now) I am eating.	Present Progressive
5.	When you came to my house I had eaten.	Past Perfect
6.	When you came to my house I was eating.	Past Progressive

To represent these relationships graphically, let C represent the action of coming to my house.

5. XXX, C	3. XXX, now	1. XXX, C
6. XXX ↑ C	4. XXX ↑ now	2. XXX ↑ C
PAST	PRESENT	FUTURE

If the C is to the right of the action, then the action was completed before C; if C is under the action then the action is taking place at the same time as C.

Given this perspective, it is easy to see the similarity in meaning in the terms recent past and present perfect.

When looked at this way, as tense plus aspect, the above tense aspect systems can be expressed as follows:

1. Future Perfect:
2. Future Progressive:
3. Present Perfect: ge Verb $\begin{Bmatrix}\text{-ga}\\ \text{-a}\end{Bmatrix}$
4. Present Progressive: ge Verb $\begin{Bmatrix}\text{-su}\\ \text{-zu}\end{Bmatrix}$ or gi Verb
5. Past Perfect: ge ɣɛ̀ní Verb -ni
6. Past Progressive: ge ɣɛ̀ní Verb $\begin{Bmatrix}\text{-su}\\ \text{-zu}\end{Bmatrix}$

Tenseless Sentences:

There are a number of sentences in Lorma which can be said not to possess tense. These are the stative, the habitual and the infinitive.

5. Individual Tense-Aspect Forms

5.1 The Present Progressive Tense

The present progressive tense marks action that is in the process of happening or is about to happen. It is an easy tense to learn since it is really a locative construction. The sentence:

Gà lììzú.	I am going.
Gɛ̀lɛ̀ lììzú.	I am not going.

means literally: I am go-in (zu < su 'in')
I am not go-in.

Below are some examples:

Gà lììzú táízù.	I am going to town.
Gà vààzú pɛ́lɛ́íwù.	I am coming from town.

Most verbs of motion (technically called intransitive because they can't take a direct object) can be followed by a locative of some sort.

5.2 The (far) past tense is formed by using the basic pronouns, followed by the past tense form of the verb. Below are some examples:

Gèlììní.	I went	Gè gílínì.	I cooked-it.
è̲lììní.	You$_s$ went.	è̲ gílínì.	You$_s$ cooked-it.
é̲lììní.	It went.	é̲ gílínì.	It cooked it.
Gélììní.	We$_x$ went.	Gé gílínì.	We$_x$ cooked-it.
Délììní.	We$_n$ went.	Dé gílínì.	We$_n$ cooked-it.
Wòlììní.	You$_p$ went.	Wo gílínì.	You$_p$ cooked-it.
Télììní.	They went.	Té gílínì.	They cooked-it.

The Negative Past

The negative past is formed using the negative subject pronouns and the negative particle l̲ɛ̲.

Below are some examples:

Gὲlὲ lììní.	I didn't go.	Gὲlὲ gílínì.	I didn't cook it.
ὲlὲ lììní.	You$_s$ didn't go.	ὲlὲ gílínì.	You didn't cook it.
έlὲ lììní.	He didn't go.	έlὲ gílínì.	It didn't cook it.
Gέlὲ lììní.	We$_x$ didn't go.	Gέlὲ gílínì.	We$_x$ didn't cook it.
Dέlὲ lììní.	We$_n$ didn't go.	Dέlὲ gílínì.	We$_n$ didn't cook it.
Wὲlὲ lììní.	You$_p$ didn't go.	Wὲlὲ gílínì.	You$_p$ didn't cook it.
Tέlὲ lììní.	They didn't go.	Tέlὲ gílínì.	They didn't cook it.

5.3 Perfect Form

Perfect form is used to describe actions which were recently completed. This form is constructed with the basic pronouns and the -ga ~ -a form of the verb.

The a form follows weak conditioning verbs and the -ga form follows strong conditioning verbs. Below are some examples.

Gὲlìá.	I walked.
èlìá.	You went.
è síɣíá.	He picked it up.
Gé téèwúí ɣéyáá	We$_x$ bought a chicken.
Dé pέlέí lóógà.	We$_n$ built a house.
Wò títégà.	You turned it.
Té sógà.	They caught it.

For some reason, the -ga ~ -a form however is used for the negation of the future. That is, the following form:

Gέlὲ sógà.	We couldn't (will not) catch it.

appears for all the world like the perfect negative, but as can be seen, its meaning is closer to the negative future.

5.4 The Simple Future.

The simple future, translated most accurately by the English auxiliary 'will' is constructed with a future pronoun and a verbal base. The future pronouns are identical to the emphatic pronouns, except for the third person singular, where tówàà appears instead of tɔ́. Thus for practical purposes the future differs from the progressive by the presence or absence of su ~ zu.

Gàlììzú.	I am going.
Gàlìì.	I will go.
Gà séγéí wúózù.	I am washing clothes.
Gà séγéí wuo.	I will wash clothes.
Tɔ́lììzú.	He is going.
Tówààlíí.	He will go.

The negative formed by using the negative pronoun, the negative particle and the verb perfect tense -a ~ -ga form. Below is the full paradigm, affirmative and negative of to eat rice.

I	ŋìnà gà sɛ́γɛ́ wúó.	ŋìnà gɛ̀lɛ̀ sɛ́γɛ́í wúóá.
You$_s$	ŋìnà yà sɛ́γɛ́ wúó.	ŋìnà ɛ̀lɛ̀ sɛ́γɛ́í wúóá.
He	ŋìnà tówáá sɛ́γɛ́ wúó.	ŋìnà ɛ́lɛ̀ sɛ́γɛ́í wúóá.
We$_x$	ŋìnà gá sɛ́γɛ́ wúó.	ŋìnà gɛ́lɛ̀ sɛ́γɛ́í wúóá.
We$_n$	ŋìnà dá sɛ́γɛ́ wúó.	ŋìnà dɛ́lɛ̀ sɛ́γɛ́í wúóá.
You$_p$	ŋìnà wá sɛ́γɛ́ wúó.	ŋìnà wɛ̀lɛ̀ sɛ́γɛ́í wúóá.
They	ŋìnà tá sɛ́γɛ́ wúó.	ŋìnà tɛ̀lɛ̀ sɛ́γɛ́í wúóá.
Tomorrow I-will clothes wash.		Tomorrow, I will not clothes wash.

5.5 The gɔ Tense.

The gɔ tense is constructed with the basic verb.

I went.	Gɔ̀lìì.
You$_s$ went.	ɔ̀lìì.
He went.	ɔ́lìì.
We$_x$ went.	Dɔ́lìì.
We$_n$ went.	Gɔ́lìì.
You$_p$ went.	Wɔ̀lìì.
They went.	Tɔ́lìì.

This form has two functions, one habitual and one conditional. The habitual is used to express an action that you do as habitually such as go to school on week days, go to church on Sundays and do the marketing in the morning.

ɔ́lìì ɓáŋgà, gàà sùbù.	He goes to Gbarnga in the morning.
ɔ́lìì kɔ́lɔ́vɛ̀lɛ́í gàà kpɔ́kɔ́vòlù.	He goes to school in the afternoon.

The perfect (recent past) habitual, meaning 'used to do X' is constructed with the same gɔ pronoun set, but with the perfect participle.

ɔ́lìà ɓáŋgà gàà súbù.	He used to go to Gbarnga in the mornings.

The second usage of the gɔ̀ form is a conditional one (sometimes called the subjunctive). The conditional is a construction related in such that the action in one is dependent on the conditions of the other. The ga conditional involves the expression of "I would...but _____."

Gɔ́lìì, kɛ̀ gàà zééɓézù.	I would go but I'm sick.
Gɔ̀ géyá kɛ̀ kápá gɛ̀lɛ̀ zèyà.	I would buy it, but I don't have money.
ɔ́ kɛ́ɛ́ kɛ̀ gɛ̀lɛ̀ gáázá kɛ́ɛ́iì.	He would do it but I didn't ask him.
ɛ̀ɣɛ̀te ɣɛ̀ní tii ɣɛ̀ɛ̀zú, gɔ́ ɓɔ́ tíɛ́.	(If) they were working, I would help them.

5.6 The Past, Progressive and Perfect

The past, progressive and past perfect are easily constructed and not so easily used. To construct the past progressive, the present participle Verb-su is preceded by the verb to be in the past tense (yɛ̀ní in the present and ŋɛ̀ní in the negative). This construction, like all past tense constructions, uses the basic pronoun set.

Gèyɛ̀ní lììzú.	Gɛ̀lɛ̀ ŋɛ̀ní lììzú.
èyɛ̀ní lììzú.	ɛ̀lɛ̀ ŋɛní lììzú.
ɛ́yɛ̀ní lììzú.	ɛ̀lɛ̀ ŋɛ̀ní lììzú.
Géyɛ̀ní lììzú.	Gɛ́lɛ̀ ŋɛ̀ní lììzú.
Déyɛ̀ní lììzú.	Dɛ́lɛ̀ ŋɛ̀ní lììzú.
Wèyɛ̀ní lììzú.	Wɛ̀lɛ̀ ŋɛ̀ní lììzú.
Féyɛ̀ní lììzú.	Fɛ́lɛ̀ ŋɛ̀ní lììzú.

5.7 The Past Perfect

The past perfect is constructed in exactly the same way as the past progressive, except that the past tense form of the verb (Verb + ni) is used instead of the present participle.

è̲γɛ̀ní lììní.	He had gone.
ɛ̲̀lɛ̀ ŋɛ̀ní lììní.	He hadn't gone.

The past progressive tense, like most complex tenses is not generally found in a simple sentence. Rather they are used to mark one event with respect to another.

Examine the following sentences:

When you came to my house (1) I was eating.
(2) I had eaten.
(3) I ate.

Each of the clauses (1, 2 & 3) expresses a different time relationship with the event described by the first clause (a clause is a sentence within a sentence). In (1) the action was in progress (hence the term progressive). In (2) the action had already been completed and in (3) (an uncommon sentence) the action takes place after the action of the first clause.

6. Modal Verbs.

In addition to simple declarations,

Fólómɔ̀ lììzú táázù.
Folomo is going to town.

it is possible to make statements as to the necessity, desirability or ability of the subject to carry out the actions. Below are some of these mood verbs.

1. Fólómò ɔ́*zóó* élìì táázù.
   Folomo can go to town.

2. Fólómò ɛ́lɛ̀ *zóó* gàà ɔ́lì táázù.
   Folomo can't go to town.

3. *Máánè* Fólómò élìì táázù.
   Folomo has to go to town.

4. *Máánèné* Fólòmó èlìì táázù.
   Folomo doesn't have to go to town.

5. Fɛ̀ní Fólómò élìì táázù.
   It is necessary for Folomo to go to town.

6. Fɛ̀ní Fólómò ɛ́lɛ̀ lìì táázù.
   Folomo musn't go to town.

7. Fólómò *èw̃óínì* élìì táázù.
   Folomo wants to go to town.

8. Fólómò ɛ́lɛ̀ w̃óínì élìì táázù.
   Folomo doesn't want to go to town.

9. Fólómò ɣà *kávɛ́lɛ́ɣázìɛ̀zú* lìì táázù.
   Folomo is trying to go to town.

10. Fólómò lɛ̀ kávɛ́lɛ́ɣázìɛ̀zú lìì táázù.
    Folomo is not trying to go to town.

8. Other Auxiliaries

8.1 *To begin to*

The meaning *to begin to* is expressed by an initial clause *tóózììà gàà* followed by perfect verb phrase.

é tóózììá gàà pɛ́lɛ́íwù bálégà.	He began to sweep the house.
Gè tóózììá gàà dɛ́ɣɛ́ ɣìlìà.	I began to cook rice.
Tè tóózììá gàà ŋápíí wɔ̀.	They began to fight.
Tè tóózììá gàà kɔ́lɔ́mààwɔ́líà.	They began to study.

8.2 Already

The meaning of already is expressed by the verb wòòláá, the adverb sàà 'now' and the present progressive.

Gè wòòláá sàà pɛ́lɛ́wù ɓá.ézù.	I already swept the house.
Gè wòòláá sàà díɣíɣìlìzù.	I already cooked the rice.
Té wòòláá sàà ŋápíí wɔ̀sù.	They already fought.
Té wòòláá sàà kɔ́lɔ́ mààwɔ́lízù.	They already studied.

E. SENTENCE TYPES

1. Existential Sentences

Existential sentences note that something exists, hence the term "existential." To say this is a/the X, the noun is followed by the word a ~ ka. (Ka is used after strong conditioning words.)

Máságìì γà.	This is the chief.
Pɛ́lɛ́í γà.	This is the house.
Másá kà.	This is the chief.

NOTE: γa is also found as an emphatic marker. This means that the preceding noun is emphasized as in the following:

Máságìì γà, tówáá lììzú táázù.
It is the chief who went to town.

2. Equational Sentences

An equational sentence is one in which an individual or set of individuals is assigned to a class.

Gà gàà tísɛ́í.	I am a teacher.
Tá gàà Lɔ̀ɔ̀mànú.	He is a Looma person.
Tíɛ́ gàà Pískɔ̀.	They are Peace Corps volunteers.

3. Locative Sentences

As the term implies, locatives have to do with location, accordingly a locative sentence is one which states a direction. He is there, She will be in the house. As can be seen, a locative sentence consists of (1) a subject (pronouns in the above examples), (2) a verbal element which expresses something about the point in time when the statement will be true and (3) a locative of some sort (either a particle such as here bɛ ~ vɛ or a postpositional phrase.

Lorma locative sentences come in pretty much the same variety as English sentences, with one exception, the verbal element appears to be missing in the present tense, a phenomenon found in various languages throughout the world including Russian. Thus, in the present tense affirmative a locative sentence consists of (1) an emphatic pronoun and (2) a locative, while the present negative consists of (1) a negative pronoun, (2) a negative particle, and (3) a locative. A complete paradigm in the present tense of 'to be there' is given below:

The Locative Paradigm: Present Tense

1sg	gà ná.	I am there.	gɛ̀lɛ̀ ná.	I am not there.
2sg	yà ná.	You$_s$ are there.	ɛ̀lɛ̀ ná.	You$_s$ are not there.
3sg	tɔ́ ná.	He is there.	ɛ́lɛ̀ ná.	He is not there.
1pl$_x$	gá ná.	We$_x$ are there.	gɛ́lɛ̀ ná.	We$_x$ are not there.
1pl$_n$	dá ná.	We$_n$ are there.	dɛ́lɛ̀ ná.	You$_p$ are not there.
2pl	wà ná.	You$_p$ are there.	wɛ̀lɛ̀ ná.	You$_p$ are not there.
3pt	tá ná.	They are there.	tɛ́lɛ̀ ná.	They are not there.

4. Stative Sentence

4.1 A stative sentence is one which indicates that the subject is in a certain state.

Zíɛ́ ɓàdívɛ̀.	The water is hot.
Zíɛ́ lɛ̀ ɓàdínì.	The water is not hot.
Kpáánàgɛ̀.	It is hard.

In Lorma, stative sentences are formed by adding one of two suffixes to the verb:

-vɛ	Following weak conditioning words.
-gɛ	Following strong conditioning words.

Below are some examples:

Below are some examples:

Kpádívɛ́.	It is hot.	Kóózàvɛ̀.	It is tall.
Déívɛ̀.	It is cold.	Kpáánà.	It is hard.
Téívɛ́.	It is black.	Pólózáá.	It is old.
Gúwóvɛ̀.	It is clean.	Kpúwóvɛ̀.	It is short.
Kɔ́lɔ́gɛ̀.	He is tired.	Níínɛ́vɛ̀.	It is young/new.
Nɔ́w̃ɔ́vɛ̀.	It is dirty.	Kómávɛ́.	It is stingy.
Pɛ́nɛ́vɛ́.	It is small.	Kpɛ́tɛ́vɛ́.	It is rich.
Págɛ̀.	It is goo.	Mɔ́lɛ́vɛ̀.	It is poor.
Kpákpávɛ.	It is large.	Kólévɛ́.	It is white.
Nɔ́ɔ́vɛ̀.	It is ugly.	Kpóívɛ́.	It is red.
y̲ówúvɛ̀.	It is evil.	Kpóévɛ̀.	It is blue.
Nɛ́ɛ́vɛ́.	It is sweet.	w̲̃álávɛ̀.	It is bitter.
Kpódávɛ́.	It is sour.		

4.2 The Past Stative

To express the past stative, that is a state that existed in the past, but presumably is no longer so, the past stative can be used. This form is constructed in an entirely different way. First the adjective with a recent past tense affix (*-a* or *-ga*) is made definite by adding the definite suffix *-i* (*-a* ~ *-ga* is a weak conditioning word). This makes the construction a noun.

Kóléáí.	the white state in the past (also...kóléɛ́í)
Págàì.	the good state in the past

As a noun, it can enter into a existential construction, by the addition of *γa*.

Kóléáí γà.	It was white.
Págàì γà.	It was good.

4.3 Attaching Nouns to the Stative

Singular nouns are attached before the adjective, and observe the consonant conditioning rules. Plural nouns are connected with an intervening third person plural basic pronoun (*té*).

Pɛ́lɛ́nììnɛ̀vɛ̀.	The house is new.
Pɛ́lɛ́nììnɛ̀àì yà.	The house was new.
Pɛ́lɛ́ítìɛ̀ ténììnɛ̀vɛ̀.	The houses (they) are new.
Pɛ́lɛ́ítìɛ̀, ténììnɛ̀àì yà.	The houses (they) were new.

5. Verbal Sentences

Verbal sentences represent by far, the major sentence type. It has already been discussed in terms of tense and aspect, verb phrase and verb complements.

F. QUESTIONS

1.1 The Yes-No Question

This kind of question can be asked either with a rising inflection at the end, or by the use of a question word at the end.

è lɔ́tɔ́zù wódóvɛ́?	Your body is healthy?
Mɔ́kòìúí nɛ̀ɛ̀vɛ́, kɛ̀lɛ́ɛ́?	The rice is sweet, no?

1.2 Who, Whom: ɓɛ́ɛ́ (ɓɛ́í)

When asking about a person, whether subject (who) or other (whom) bɛ is always used.

ɓɛ́ɛ́ ɣá è vàazù?	Who is coming?
è ɓɛ́ɛ́mámánì?	Whom did you thank?
è wɛ̀lɛ̀ní ɓɛ̀ɛ̀ vá?	Whom did you see?
èw̃óínì gàà ɓɛ́ɛ́?	Whom did you want?

Usually, however, the question word is placed at the beginning of the sentence followed by the emphatic marker (ka ~ ɣa). To mark what part of the sentence this question word is referring to, the pronoun representing that entity is returned.

ɓɛ́ɛ́ ɣá è mámánì?	Whom did you thank?	(high tone = it)
ɓɛ́ɛ́ ɣá è wɛ̀lɛ̀nì bà?	Whom did you see?	(high tone = it)
ɓɛ́ɛ́ ɣá è pɛ́tɛ́nì?	Whom did you see?	(high tone = it)
ɓɛ́ɛ́ ɣá ew̃óínì là?	Whom did you want?	(la = it)

1.3 Whose: ɓɛ́ɛ́

Whose is really a possessive pronoun, and so a whose question is constructed as a possessive.

ɓɛ̀ɛ̀ nákɔ́lɔ́ ɣà ɛ tévéé mà?	Whose book is one the table?
ɓɛ̀ɛ̀ ɣá kɔ́wɔ́í wóózágɛ̀?	Whose foot is the longest?

1.4 What: zɛ̀ɓɛ́ɛ́, àɓɛ́ɛ́

What questions follow the same logic as who questions.

Zɛ̀ɓɛ́ɛ́ ɣá élóónì?	What fell?
è zɛ̀ɓɛ́ɛ́ ɣɛ́ɛ́nì?	What did you do?
Zɛ̀ɓɛ́ɛ́ ɣá è kɛ́ɛ́nì?	What did you do?
è wɛ̀lɛ̀ nì zɛ̀ɓɛ̀ɛ̀vá?	What did you see?
Zɛ̀ɓɛ́ɛ́ ɣá è wɛ̀lɛ̀nì bá?	
è zɛ̀ɓɛ́ɛ́ vɛ́tɛ́nì?	What did you see?
Zɛ̀ɓɛ́ɛ́ ɣa è pɛ́tɛ́nì?	
èw̃óínì gàà zɛ̀ɓɛ̀ɛ̀?	What do you want?
Zɛ̀ɓɛ́ɛ́ ɣá èw̃óíní là?	

1.5 Which: zɛ̀ɓɛ́ɛ́

Which, being an adjective, follows an adjectival construction.

Kɔ́lɔ́zɛ́ɓɛ́ɛ́ ɣá é tɛ́véé mà?	Which book is on the table?
Kɔ́lɔ́zɛ́ɓɛ́ɛ́ ɣá éw̃óíní là?	Which book do you want?
Táázɛ́ɓɛ̀ɛ̀ ɣá gàà níí?	What town is this?

1.6 Where: mìnɛ́.

èlììní mìnɛ́?	Where did you go (there)?
Táwɔ́í zìɣìní mìnɛ́?	Where is their friend from?
Mìnɛ́ ɣà élììní nà?	Where did he go?
Mìnɛ́ ɣà máságìì nà?	Where is the chief?

1.7 How much: díídè, lìídè

Díídè ɣà gàà ɣà zɔ̀ɔ̀láítì ɛ̀?	How much is your merchandise?
Díídè ɣà èw̃óínì nà?	How much do you want?
Sɔ́w̃ɔ́í ɣà gàà lììdè?	How much is the price?
Máázàdíídè ɣà é ná?	How many bananas are there?

1.8 When: vólóɓɛ́ɛ́

Vólóɓɛ́ɛ́ ɣà líílà?	When will you go there?
Vólóɓɛ́ɛ́ ɣà yà váálà?	When will you come?

1.9 Why: zɛ̀ɓɛ́ɛ́ é kɛ́ɛ́

Zɛ̀ɓɛ́ɛ́ é kɛ́ɛ́ yà kɛ́ɛ́?	Why did you do it?
Zɛ̀ɓɛ́ɛ́ é kɛ́ɛ́ yà númùlùgíí yè kúló?	Why did you pick your oranges?
Zɛ̀ɓɛ́ɛ́ é kɛ́ɛ́ yàvàà?	Why did you come?

1.10 How.

è kɛ́ɛ́vɛ̀ ɣɛ̀ lɛ̀?	Show me how you did it.
Vélézɛ́ɓɛ́ɛ́ è kɛ́ɛ́?	How do you do it? (What way) did you do it?

G. COMPLEX SENTENCES

1. Emphasis.

In most languages, there is a device to emphasize or highlight one of the noun phrases in the sentence. For example in English any noun can be highlighted by saying it louder than the others. In the following examples the capitalized word is the one that is said louder.

1. The man gave the rice to the woman in the market today.
2. THE MAN gave the rice to the woman in the market today.
3. The man gave THE RICE to the woman in the market today.
4. The man gave the rice to THE WOMAN in the market today.
5. The man gave the rice to the woman in THE MARKET today.
6. The man gave the rice to the woman in the market TODAY.

More commonly however, languages achieve emphasis by placing the word to be emphasized at the front of the sentence. Since the subject is normally in this position, the subject, as one would expect, receives the emphasis in a normal sentence. Thus (1) and (2) above are very similar in meaning.

Different languages will find different ways of placing the subject at the head of the sentence. English and French, for example use an "It is X that..." construction as follows.

2a. It is the man who gave the rice to the woman in the market today.
3a. It is the rice that the man gave to the woman in the market today.
4a. It is to the woman that the man gave the rice in the market today.
5a. It is in the market that the man gave the rice to the woman today.
6a. It is today that the man gave the rice to the woman in the market.

It should also be pointed out that the passive voice is another way of emphasizing the object as the following pairs show.

2b. The man gave the rice to the woman.
3b. The rice was given by the man to the woman.

Lorma does not have a passive and does not use an "It is X that..." construction for emphasis. Rather Lorma uses an X ka sentence construction.

In addition, rather than deleting the noun from the original sentence, the Lorma replaces it with a pronoun (underlined in the following examples). Thus the form of Lorma emphatics, parallel to the above English emphatics are given below.

1c. Zúnúí mɔ́lɔ́í vènì ŋázánúíyà záɣáízù zàà.
2c. Zúnúí ɣà, _é_ mɔ́lɔ́í vènì ŋázánúíyə̀ záɣáízù zàà.
3c. Mɔ́lɔ́í ɣà, zúnúí _f_énì ŋázánúíyà záɣáízù zàà.
4c. _ŋ_ázánúí ɣà, zúnúí mɔ́lɔ́í vènì _z_èà záɣáízù zàà.
5c. Záɣáízù ɣà, zúnúí mɔ́lɔ́í vènì ŋázánúíyà zàà.
6c. Záá ɣá, zúnúí mɔ́lɔ́i vènì ŋázánúíyà záɣáízù.

2. The Comparative Construction

In English comparatives are expressed by the adverb _more_ (if the word under comparison is more than two syllables) and by the suffix _-er_ (a reduced form of more) if the word is less than two syllables.

John is tall_er_ than Peter.	tall: 1 syllable
John is ugli_er_ than Peter.	ugly: 2 syllables
John is more intelligent than Peter.	intelligent: 4 syllables

In Lorma, these comparisons can be expressed in a number of ways, none of which parallel the English construction.

2.1 Throughout West Africa, the verb which is usually translated as "to surpass" or "to pass" is often found in comparative constructions. Below are some examples from Lorma.

Péwù wóózávɛ́ (élévé) Súmóyɛ̀và.	Pewu is tall, he surpasses Sumoyea.
Péwù lɛ̀ wóózánì ɔ́lévé Súmóyɛ́và.	Pewu is not tall, he surpasses Sumoyea.

In the negative (second example), the stative (-_vɛ_ or -_gɛ_) is expressed as a simple past negative. The dependent clause is used in the habitual form (the _gɔ_ pronoun series) rather than the basic pronoun series.

2.2 The su Stative.

In this form, the meaning of the sentence is read literally as "in X" adjective is on (over) Y.

Péwúzù ɓáávɛ́ bá.	Pewu is stronger than him.
Péwúzù ɓáávɛ́ Súmóyɛ́và.	Pewu is stronger than Sumoyea.

2.3 Metaphore as a Kind of Comparison

This sentence type says literally "It is X, looks like Y" (rather than like a Y). Below are some examples.

Péwù káízù ɓáávɛ́, pɛ́tɛ̀ gáá pɛ́lɛ́.	Pewu is strong, he looks (like) a house.

2.4 Superlative Construction

The superlative construction is really an extension of the comparative in which the point of reference is absolute. Below are some examples:

Péwùzù ɓáávɛ́ tépɛ̀ba.	Pewu is stronger than them all.
Péwùzù ɓáávɛ́ tézáámàvà.	Pewu is stronger among them.
Péwùzù ɓáávɛ́ númáítìɛ̀và.	Pewu is stronger than people.

3. Coordinating Conjunctions.

Conjunctions and, or.

Lorma is particularly creative in its ways to express the concepts 'and' and 'or'.

3.1 And

And can be expressed in the following ways:

tá	Síɛ́nɛ́ tá Múlbà tàììzú. Siɛne and Mulbah are going.
évɛ́ɛ́ X-ba	Síɛ́nɛ́ évɛ́ɛ́ Múlbàvá távààzú. Siɛne and Mulbah are coming.

bɔ̀gá or bɔ̀gó.	Síɛ́né bɔ̀gá Múlbàh tálììzù. Siɛne and Mulbah are walking to town.

If more than three nouns are conjoined, conjunctions "connect" each noun, though the same conjunction should not be used throughout.

Síɛ́né tá Múlbà tá bɔ̀gá Zízì, tálììzú.
Siene and Mulbah and Zizi are going.

In Lorma, every effort is made to avoid piling up direct objects before the verb, for such constructions make it difficult to keep track of the verb. In such situations, the èvɛ́ɛ́ X-ba construction is used to place objects to the right of the verb.

ɛ́ kpóló zìɣì èvɛ́ɛ́ kísɛ́bà.	He took salt and pepper.
ɛ́ níímùlù kúlóá èvɛ́ɛ́ máázábà.	He picked oranges and bananas.

3.2 Or

The concept 'or' (disjunction) is expressed by either nàláálɛ̀ or ɔ́nɔ̀yá (neither).

Gà fé Fòlòmòyà nàláálɛ́ Zízì.	I will give it to either Folomo or Zizi.
Gà fé Fòlòmòyá ɔ́nɔ̀yá Zízì.	I will give it to niether Folomo nor Zizi.
Gàlìì Zɔ̀zɔ́ó zàà, nàlààlɛ́ ŋ̀ìnà.	I will go to Zorzor today or (failing that) tomorrow.

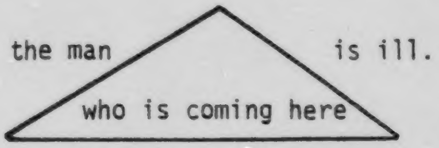
Conjunctions relating to full clauses are present in Lesson 18.

4. Relative Clauses

4.1 Relative clauses are one type of sentence in which the one sentence is used to further specify a noun phrase, whether subject, object or object of a postposition. Below are some examples from English in which the relative clauses are underlined:

1.	Subject:	The man who is coming here is ill. The man whom you know is ill.
2.	Object:	I like the man who is coming here. I like the man whom you know.
3.	Indirect Object:	Give it to the man who is coming here. Give it to the man whom you know.
4.	Object of Prep.:	I am going to the town that has a lake. I am going to the town that you know.

The English relative clause is inserted directly following the noun which it modifies and thereby can interrupt the flow of the main clause.



Because the relative clause is in a sense below the main clause it is called subordinate, or embedded.

As opposed to subordination, Lorma modifications also used coordination (sentences on the same level). For example the sentence in (1) above can be expressed as a coordinate sentence (e.g. below).

The man is coming here; the man is ill.

While these sentences have clear relative meanings in Lorma, they are structurally coordinate and for this reason, in the following discussion they are called "pseudorelatives" or false relatives.

4.2 Pseudorelative Clauses

The problem is that these sentences as they stand will put an entire sentence before the verb, as part of the object, something which is not good Lorma. For example:

Gè zúnúínìì é mɔ́lɔ́í ɣéyànì vɛ́tɛ̀nì.	I saw the man who bought the rice.

There are two ways to make this sentence acceptable. The first is to emphasize the object and thereby putting it in a subject position as in the following examples:

1.	Mɔ́lɔ́íníí é géyá, tɔ́ɔ́ gílízù sáá.	This rice, he bought it, he is cooking it now.
2.	Zúnúínìì ɣàà é mɔ́lɔ́í ɣέyánì, gè pέtὲnì.	This man, he bought rice, I see him.

The alternative is to postpone the modifying clause until after the main sentence.

1.	Gè mɔ́lɔ́ínìì ɣèyànì tɔ́ɔ́ gìlìzú sàà.	I bought this rice, he is cooking it now. (I bought the rice that he is cooking.)
2.	Gè zúnúínìì vὲtὲní, é mɔ́lɔ́ ɣéyánì.	I see this man, he bought rice. (I see the man who bought rice.)
3.	Gè zúnúínìì vὲtὲní, é váánì gàà lópóíníí, é mɔ́lɔ́í ɣèyà.	

Those noun phrases which are the objects of postpositions are dealt with in the same way.

1.	Gè wέlέnì zúnúíníívà, é mɔ́lɔ́ ɣèyànì.	I saw this man, he bought the rice. (I saw the man who bought the rice.)

Given this introduction, the understanding of the construction of Lorma pseudorelative clauses, note the following examples:

1. Návólóí è fénì zèyà, tɔ́ɔ́ téévéí mà.
2. Návólóí ɣàà, è fénì zèyà, tɔ́ɔ́ téévéí mà.
3. Návólóínìì, è fení zèyà, tɔ́ɔ́ téévéí mà.
4. Návólóínìì ɣàà, è fénì zèyà, tɔ́ɔ́ téévéí mà.

   The money which you gave me is on the table.

All of the above sentences are paraphrases, that is they have the same meaning. While the meaning of the relative relationship is there it is not as clear as the others. The use of nii 'this' however serves to sharpen the distinction. Note how literal readings of sentences (1) and (4) help to show this distinction.

1. The money you gave it to me, it is on the table.
4. THIS MONEY, you gave it to me, it is on the table.

(It could well be that the use of the English word that and the sister of this could have arisen in a similar way.)

It is also important to note that the construction of pseudorelatives in Lorma is different for subjects and objects.

4.3 Subject Pseudorelatives.

The construction of subject pseudorelatives is straight-forward for it involves simply stringing one sentence after the other, ideally adding the demonstrative nii to the subject. Below are some examples.

The man who went to Gbarnga wants to see you.
Zúnúínìì, élììní ɓángà éw̃óíní é èvɛ̀tɛ̀.

The man whom you saw, wants to go to Gbarnga.
Zúnúínìì ɣàà, é èvɛ̀tɛ̀, éw̃óíní élìì ɓángà.

4.4 Object Pseudorelatives.

Object pseudorelatives, such as the following must be recast because in their present forms they cannot be converted to a Lorma relative clause.

1. You bought the rice that is cooking now.
2. I saw the man who bought the rice.
3. I saw the man who asked the boy to bring the rice.

4.5 Where Clauses

Where clauses, such as "he told me where he put the money" requires different from than the standard modifying clauses discussed above. At the heart of this construction is the word vɛ̀ɛ̀ meaning 'where' and knowing that, where clauses fall nicely into line. Below are some examples:

ɛ́ bónì mà vɛ̀ɛ̀ é návóléí wùùní nà.
he said to me where he money put-ed there.
He told me where to put the money.

Vɛ̀ɛ̀ ɣáá gèw̃óínì gèlìì nà.
here is I want I go there
This is where I want to go.

Gèw̃óínì gèlìì vɛ̀ɛ̀ è wúmɔ́nùì vɛ́tɛ́ní nà.
I want I go where you thief saw there
I want to go to where you saw the thief.

The one thing to note in this construction, is that the location is repeated in the second clause as locative pronoun na there (underlined in the above examples).

It is also possible to express this where notion in another way, as in the following example:

é nápɛ́lɛ́ílà lɛ́nì gáázù.
he his house place showed eye-in
He showed his house site to me. (He showed me where his house is).

5. Sentence Linkages: Coordinate Constructions.

In any language we find a number of different ways of relating sentences at the same level. Some examples from English are given below:

1. I will not go unless the rain stops.
2. I will not go until you give me money for transport.
3. I did not go because you did not give me money for transport.
4. I went here so that I could learn the news.
5. The rain has stopped, therefore I shall go.
6. If you go there, they will tell you the news.
7. I will go there before the rice is finished.
8. I will go, but I don't want to.
9. I will go, even though I can't help.

5.1 Unless: kɛ̀ní

1.	Gɛ̀lɛ̀ líá, kɛ̀ní tínɛ́í é ténégà.	I will go unless the rain stops.
2.	Návólóí ɣàà tévééímà, kɛ̀ní è síɣí nà.	The money is on the table unless you took it.
3.	Gá dáámì kɛ̀ní kísɛ́ ɣàà má gàà tàmáá.	I will eat it unless pepper is in it too much.

5.2 Until: éyɛ́sù

The literal meaning of éyɛ́sù according to M. Miller (Short Loma) is "he stayed in it". In this construction, the second sentence is always in the infinitive form.

1.	Gɛ́lɛ́ líá, éyɛ́sú, è návólóívɛ́ zèyà.	I will not go, until, you give me the money.
2.	ɛ́lɛ́ vàà, éyɛ́sù, élìì táázù.	He will not come until you go to town.
3.	Té tíí ɣɛ̀ɛ̀ní, éyɛ́sù, kpídí vɛ̀ɛ̀.	They worked until night came.

NOTE: In (1) 'until' can be replaced by fɛ́ní 'you have to'.

5.3 Because: bɔ́vɛ̀láálè

1.	Gɛ̀ lɛ̀ líá, bɔ́vɛ̀láálé, ɛ̀lɛ̀ kávɔ́nɛ́vɛ́í vɛ́nì zèyà.	I did not go. because you did not give me transport money.
2.	Gàlììzú kɔ́lɔ́vɛ́lɛ́wù, bóvɛ̀láále, gèw̃óínì ge tíívàgɔ́ zɔ́lɔ́wó, gè kɛ́.	I am going to school, because I want to get a good job to do.
3.	Gà zíɛ́léí ɓɔ̀lèzú bóvɛláálé kɔ́ɔ́gíízùwíígɛ̀.	I'm drinking cold water because my body is warm.

5.4 So that: gàà and kɛ́ɛ́vààmá

To express the meaning 'so that' or 'in order that', two constructions are available. The word gàà is placed at the beginning of the two sentences while the phrase kɛ́ɛ́vààmá may be placed between the two sentences. The meaning of the phrase kɛ́ɛ́vàà ma is:

1. Gèlììní nà, gàà gè fáá w̃ɛ̀ɛ̀.
   Gè lììní nà, kɛ́ɛ́vààmá, gè gáá w̃ɛ̀ɛ̀.
   I went there so that I could learn the news.

2. Gà ŋábúí lòòzú gàà, è díɣíɣìlì.
   Gà ŋábúí lòòzú kɛ́ɛ́vààmá, è díɣíɣìlì.
   I will start the fire sc that you can cook.

3. è návólóí vènì zéyá, gàà gé mɔ́lɔ́zù ɣèyalá.
   è návólóí vènì zéyá, kɛ́ɛ́vààmá gè mɔ́lɔ́zù ɣèyalá.
   He gave me the money so that I could buy rice.

5.5 Therefore: nàváámá

Therefore clauses are linked with the phrase, nàváámá, meaning possibly 'that comes on'.

1.	Tínɛ́í é ténégà, nàváámá, gà sàà gàlìì.	The rain has stopped, therefore I shall now go.
2.	é nápɛ́lɛ́í` lóógá ŋ́ínà, nàváámá, ètɔ́ɔ́ zàà yàŋííbù.	He built his house yesterday, therefore he can sleep in it today.
3.	é sáléí wùní páláíɣà, nàváámá, tɔ́ɔ́ sáá yábééyá.	He put medicine on the wound, therefore it will heal.

5.6 If-then: àníí

If-then constructions begin with the word àníí, meaning 'if.' This construction can also be used to express the meaning 'unless.'

1.	Àníí yàì ná, tá sáá tà bó èyà ní*nɛ́í*nà.	If you go there, they will tell you the *news*.
2.	Àníí yà zíɛ́ yìlìná, zíɛ́-wáláí lɛ́ zùgà.	If you boil the water, you will not get diarrhea.
3.	Àníí yà gàà Lɔ̀ɔ̀mànúí, yà w̃ɔ́ínì gàà tɔ́bɔ́gíí.	If you are a Lorma person, you will like torborgie.

The use of the word *na* meaning 'then' in this context between the two sentences is optional.

5.7 Before: *ɔ̀vɛ̀ɛ̀*

Before sentences are with the phrase *ɔ̀vɛ̀ɛ̀* which means literally: it will begin. But in this construction, the phrase *ɔ̀vɛ̀ɛ̀* is actually an auxiliary verb. Thus the following sentences translate literally as "I will begin to X, I do Y."

1.	Gɔ̀vɛ̀ɛ̀ lììzú nà, mɔ́lɔ́zéí ɣàà bêa.	Before I go there, the rice will be finished.
2.	Mɔ́lɔ́zéí ɣàà bêà, gɔ̀vɛ̀ɛ̀ lììzú nà.	The rice will finish before I go there.
3.	Zúnúi ɔ́vɛ́ɛ́ láámììzú, éyáá wùònì.	Before the man ate, he washed his hands.

5.8 *But, kɛ̀*

But constructions are conjoined by the word *kɛ̀*.

1.	Gàlììzú nà, kɛ̀ gɛ̀lɛ̀ w̃óínì gɔ kɛ́ɛ́.	I will go there, but I don't want to do it.
2.	Gèw̃óínì gàà tɔ́wɔ́í, kɛ̀ tá wúlú bɔ̀ɔ̀ nɔ̀.	I like beans, but only a little.
3.	*ɛ́* bónì mà, kɛ̀ zɛ́ɛ́vàvɛ̀.	He told me that, but it's a lie.

5.9 *Even though, véléíɓàlàà*

The phrase *véléíɓàlàà* introduces an even though construction. Importantly, the verb is followed by the word *da* it (weak form: *la*). The literal meaning of this construction is: "the way is difficult."

1.	Véléíɓàlàà gàlìì lá ná, kɛ̀ gɛ̀lɛ̀ kɛ́ɛ́.	Even though I will go, I can't do it.
2.	Véléíɓàlàà é sálé ɓóá lénì là, ɛ́lɛ́ válónì.	Even though he took medicine, he did not get better.
3.	Véléíɓàlàà è tìlì gádà, gɛ̀lɛ̀ vàà.	Even though you called me, I didn't come.
4.	Véléíɓàlàà gè fénì là èyà, ɛ̀lɛ̀ W̃óínì là.	Even though I gave it to you you don't want it.

CHAPTER V

LORMA-ENGLISH AND ENGLISH-LORMA DICTIONARY

The process of writing a dictionary is a large and tedious process of checking and rechecking entries against usages not only by one speaker, but by many speakers. A good dictionary should contain samples of sentences to illustrate usage of the entry. What follows then by definition is less than a dictionary, but on the other hand it is more than a word list, for it does contain information on parts of speech, dialectal variants and usage. When using this dictionary the reader is encouraged to correct or modify transcription in the light of experience and to make additions when new words are identified.

DICTIONARY (LORMA - ENGLISH)

A.

-a (suf)
indefinite plural

àɓɛ́ (n)
which, what

Afɛ́lɛ́kòyúízù (n)
Ivory Coast

ágɛ́ (conj)
in order

Amélɛ́kà (n)
America

ànɛ́ɛ́ (adv)
although

àníí (conj)
if

àníínɔ̀ (adv)
as long as

B.

ba (pp)
on

báálágíí (n)
sheep

bàhóónà (adv)
two days ago

báí (n)
fare

báláá (n)
others

bàláá (adv)
also, more, still
yàbàláá...you too

báláí (n)
bangle, bracelet

bàlàgáí (n)
kitchen, grainery

ɓáló (v)
to heal, get well

bátùlúwótíí (n)
battery
(battery stones)

bèbá (v)
to leave

be (adv)
here
also...ve

béá (n)
people
also...-vea
(used as plural)

bègáá (adv)
used with zoo...able
see Lesson 18

bɛ́ (pp)
for, to

bɛ́bɛ̀ì (n)
bag

bɛɛngii (n)
pliers

bɛ́líí (n)
trap

bɛ́ɛ́ná (sw)
sorry

bɛ̀ɛ̀nzíí (n)
gasoline

bɛ́lɛ́gíí (n)
trousers

bɛ́lɛ́kóózágìì (n)
long pants

bɛ́lɛ́kpúógìì (n)
short pants

bɛ́tɛ́í (n)
bed

bɛ́tìì (n)
belt

bííyá (adj)
heavy, important

bílí (v)
to scratch
(bare the earth)

bílí (n)
to throw away
see pílí

bìlì (v)
to get lost

bílíí (n)
goat

bílíkìì (n)
brick

bíyá (n)
beer

bó (v)
to say

bó X-má (v)
to tell X

bó X-bá (v)
to say to X

bóí (n)
yam

bóí X la (v)
to effect X

bògá (conj)
and

boga X-ma gaa Y (n)
to promise X that Y

bóí (n)
friend, acquaintance

bókógìì (n)
arm

Bòsúwóí (n)
English

Bósúyùì (n)
United States

bówáí (n)
knife

bówàlù (v)
to repeat

bɔ́bɔ́ (adj)
real

bògàfáí
heavy matter

bɔ́kìì	(n)	bucket
bɔ́lɔ́gìì	(n)	hat
bɔ̀ɔ̀lɔ̀kélégìì	(n)	big one
bɔ̀ɔ̀tàpówéngìì		butter pear, avacado
bɔ́ɔ́vɛ̀láálè	(conj)	because
bɔ́síí	(n)	bus
bú, wú	(pp)	under, inside
búlóngì	(n)	plum (guava)
búíngìì	(n)	pig
búlú	(pp)	outside
ɓa	(adv)	no
ɓaa	(conj)	or
ɓádí	(n)	bandi people
ɓádíwòò	(n)	Bandi (language)
ɓáángà	(n)	Gbarnga (town)
ɓàlàà X ɔnɔyɛ Y		either X or Y
ɓáláɣúí	(n)	kitchen, grainery
ɓàlè	(v)	to sweep
ɓázáí	(n)	rice birds
ɓází	(n)	yellow (See Lesson 11)
ɓe X-ba	(v)	to let X
ɓègà X-ba		to leave X
ɓɛ́ɛ́	(n)	what, who
ɓíỹíí	(n)	rat trap
ɓííɓɔ́kùì		dove
ɓìzé	(v)	to run (see biza)
ɓó X-pá	(v)	to help X
ɓóé	(adj, n)	green (see kpóé)
ɓógíí	(n)	door
ɓóí	(adj, n)	red (see kpóí)
ɓolii	(n)	bowl
ɓólóɓólóí	(n)	hot pepper
ɓóíyáí gɛ̀ɛ̀	(v)	be difficult

ɓótííɣɛ́ɛ́là
working

ɓɔgɔpɛ (n)
everyone

ɓɔ́í (n)
talk

ɓɔ́ígíí (n)
student

ɓɔ́íwɔ́ (v)
to discuss
to put talk

ɓɔ́í X-pɔ́ (v)
to talk to X

ɓɔ́lé (v)
to drink
also bole and bɔle

ɓɔ̀ɔ̀ (adv)
very

ɓɔ́yíɛ́máí (n)
liberty, justice

ɓɔ́yéé (v)
to free

ɓuogii (n)
short

ɓuse (n)
human
(nubuse...human being)

D.

dáá (v)
to lie down

dáá (n)
name

dáá (n)
mouth

dábáí (n)
meat

dáábɛ́lɛ́ (v)
to remove stem

dáalímàì
a greeting

dáámíí (n)
food

dáámíŋàníí (n)
food stuff (food-thing)

dáánɔ́wɔ̀ (v)
to suffer

dáávɛ́gá (v)
to believe

dááwòlògíí (n)
lips

dááwùòì (n)
tooth brush (mouth wash)

dáázɛ́ɣɛ́ (v)
to save

dáázéígíí (n)
name
also dáázííɡíí

dáázíɛ́gíí (n)
word

dáázù
sleeping

dáázù (n)
resting place

dábáí (n)
sauce

dábé (n)
cousin

dábóí (n)
pillow

dáɣáí (n)
leaf

dákáí (n)
fish (sp)

dálágìì (n)
bell

dàlàgíí (n)
dollar

Dé (n)
St. Paul river

déáí (n)
children

déé (n)
mother, fathers other
wives, aunt

déɣéí (n)
younger brother (sibling)

déí (adj)
cold W L

dévú (v)
to breathe

dévé (v)
to decide

déyá (n)
to us

dɛ́ (v) gaa X
to show to X

dɛ́ (adv)
yet

dɛ́ (adv)
first
goes with mámàwṹùgíí

dɛ̀
we (inclusive) will

dɛ̀
we (inclusive) neg

dɛ́ɛ́zìdà (adj)
fix

dɛ́ítìɛ̀ (n)
children

díí
let's go

dìɛ̀ (n-pn)
us
object of gaa

dìɛ̀ (n)
older brother (sibling)

díídɛ́ (adv)
how much
also liidɛ

díɣíí (n)
pot

díɣíɣìlì (v)
to cook
(pot cook)

díɣízòɣàláítìɛ̀wo
put things away
(tidy up)

dípàì (n)
deer

dódó	(v)	to count
dódó	(v)	to read
dóólùò	(adj)	five
doi, doo	(n)	wine
dówá	(v)	to beat
dóówù	(v)	to bury
dóówùfàì	(n)	secret (buried matter)
dɔ́b̂ɔ́í	(n)	bush, countryside
dɔ́gìtáí	(n)	doctor (western)
dɔ́í	(n)	palm tree
dɔ́lɔ́í	(n)	briefs
dɔ́ɔ́fèlà	(adj)	seven
Dɔ̀ɔ́gbɔ́kɔ̀	(n)	Thursday
dɔ́ɔ́mélél	(n)	nail
dɔ́ɔ́sávà	(adj)	eight
Dɔ̀ɔ́wálà	(n)	Friday
dɔ́tɔ́zú	(n)	body
dɔ́tɔ́zúlábà	(n)	body pain
dɔ́wɔ́í	(n)	skin spots
dɔ́wɔ́í	(n)	market
dɔ́wɔ́í	(n)	week
Dùkɔ́ɔ́	(n)	Monrovia
dúsóí	(n)	hunter
dúú	(n)	child
dúúlú	(v)	to splash
dúúnázánúí	(n)	daughter
dúúwó	(n)	to frighten
dúúwóŋɛ̀nì	(n)	fierce thing
dúúzùnùì	(n)	son

E.

éétíngìì (n)
fifteen cents

éɣɛ́sú (adv)
until
(also éyɛ́sú)

èkɛ́ɛ́vɛ̀ɣɛ̀lɛ̀
how

évéé X-ba (conj)
and X

évílé X-bà
concerning

èvéévà̖

please

èwùngɔ́
good morning (you woke up)

èyà
to you (s)

ɛ̀
you (s) neg

ɛ́lɛ̀
he, she, it (neg)

ɛ́lɛ̀bóí
mute person (he can't talk)

F.

fángáí (n)
gas

fangai (n)
wind

fáányɔ̀ì (n)
bad thing

fááwòògìì (n)
case

fáí, faa
news

fátòléí (n)
factory

fé X-ya (v)
to give to X

fèlègíí (n)
gown

félégɔ̀ (adj)
two

félékèlé (n)
second one

fèlèpáɣɛ́í (n)
change

fétéí (adv)
you have to

fɛ, vɛ
for (sɔmebody)

fɛli (v)
to beg, to worship
galafɛli...to prey

fɛ̀ní (adv)
you have to

fiibɛɛ (adj)
careless

fííγàì (n)
campus

Fíísɛ̀bù (n)
Fisebu (town)

fívìlìgìì (n)
dust

Flánzùzúízù (n)
France

flásláiti (n)
flashlight

fláwáí (n)
flour

Flénzùwòò (n)
French language

fóléí ~ folo (n)
sun

fóléí ~ fóló (n)
day

fóló (v)
to be bright

fólógíí (n)
pigeon

foloŋɛɛnii (n)
dry season

fón X ba (v)
to touch X

fówúngìì
nickel

fɔ́lɔ́í (n)
ant

fɔ̀nɛ̀í (n)
pay

fɔ́ɔ́í (n)
fork

fɔ́fɔ́í (n)
bug

G.

ga (suffix)
indefinite plural
see lesson 8 section 2.4

gà
I will

gàà (pp)
that (rel)

gàà (pp)
with

gaa (v)
to be

gaaɓaa
power

gááγàà (v)
to understand

gàà gɛ́lɛ́gɛ́lɛ (adv)
cleverly

gaalɛɛ X -ba (v)
to gather round X

gàà máávìlà (adv)
quickly

gáámàì (n)
justice

gáámàì (n)
truth

gààmàwò (v)
to prove

gàà nỹɔ́wà (adv)
poorly

gàà págɔ̀ (adv)
well

gàà pɛ́lɛ́pɛ̀lɛ̀ (adv)
slowly

gàà táámà (adv)
alot, plentiful

gaavɛɛ (v)
remove chaff

gàà válábà (adv)
foolishly

gàwè (v)
to separate, divide

gàà wóówàlà (adv)
loudly (with big voice)

gàà wóówulu (adv)
quitely

gááwòtè (v)
to answer

gááwòtégìì (n)
answer

gááwɔ́lɔ́ (v)
tease, annoy

gààyɛ̀ (v)
to remember

gááyìì (v)
pile up, mash
see Lesson 19 text

gáázàgà
themselves

gáázáí (n)
question

gáázákɛ́ (v)
to question

gààzìè gàà X (v)
to look for X

gàà zìlɛ̀mà (adv)
slowly

gáázù (n)
face

gáázùvɛ̀ (n)
eye

gáázùɣìlì (v)
to frown
(to tie face)

gáázúlábá (n)
eye pain

gáázùmáyɛ̀ì (n)
tear

gáázúwɛ́lɛ́núí (n)
blind person

gáázúwùò (v)
to wash face

gáɣéwù (v)
to knead

gáí (pn)
we who
("relative" pronoun)

gáí (n)
bǫŋe,
gaiɣálíí...broken bone

gálá (v)
to burn

Gálágíí
God

Gáláfélí (v)
to pray

Gálágóówónùì (n)
preacher
(God-word-put-person)

Gálápɛ́lɛ́í
Church

gálávà (n)
hour

gálé (v)
to break, split

gálíí - gálú (n)
rope

gálógìì
month

gáwé (v)
to separate, divide

géééí
leprosy

géézù (n)
sky

géézù (pp)
upwards (in the sky)

gèlè
own (self)

géngé (v)
to fry

géyá (v)
to buy

géyá
to us (X)

gézúí (n)
thread

gɛ́ (v)
to leave

gɛ (suffix)
stative
(see lesson 7)

gɛ́
we (exclusive) will

gɛ́
decide

gɛ̀ X mà (v)
to be called X

gɛ́ɛ́ (v)
to buy
see geyá

gɛ́lááʙógà (n)
dawn

gɛ́lɛ̀
we (exclusive) neg

gɛ̀lɛ̀
I neg

gɛ́zɛ́í (n)
cotton

gígíí (n)
mind

gìlágíí (n)
one
also yìlá

gílɛ́wùì (n)
dog

gili (v)
to cook, boil

gílí (v)
to tie

gílí X -ma (v)
to wear

gílímázéɣéí (n)
dress

gílí (v)
to cook

Gíníyúízù (n)
Guinea

gìvílígà
to doubt

gízígìì (n)
hill

gízígwáláí (n)
mountain

góí (n)
ear

góígóí (adv)
around

góívólénùì (n)
deaf person

góízùŋɛ́níí (n)
earring

gólóí (n)
chimpanzee

góóí (n)
voice

góóí (n)
language

gooi (n)
news, word

góóí (n)
song

góóílóó (v)
to sing (build song)

góómɛ́ní (v)
to obey
(hear word)

gooiɣawote (v)
to answer
turn-word

gówéí (n)
cottonwood tree

góyáí (n)
forest

gɔ́mɛ́ntíí (n)
government

gɔ́mɛ́ntílííɣɛ́ɛ́nùì (n)
government worker
government-work-do-person

gɔ́vɛ́í (n)
spirit

gúlɛ́í, gúlɔ́ (n)
palm oil

gúíí (n)
weed

gúlíí, gúlú (n)
tree, stick, wood

gúííwúlɔ́ (v)
to pull weeds
weed-pull

gúló (v)
to appoint

gúó (v)
wash W, L

gúó (v)
to plaster on mud

gúó (v)
to rub

guoɓakigii (n)
wash house
also guovɛlɛi

gúlúvàì (n)
fruit
tree-things

gúlúwɔ́ɔ́gàì (n)
tree felling

gúlúwùlùgíí (n)
greens

guwa (adv)
clean W, L

gwálá (adj)
big

gwíí
grass

gwílé, wile
at the edge of

gbeagii (n)
fish net basket

gbɛgbɛi (n)
drum

H.

hoo
sign of personal involvement added to the end of the sentence

I.

íngíníá (n)
engineer

ìlésàgíí (n)
eraser

J.

ɣa X -zeya (v)
to have X
be in X's hand

ɣa (v)
to be

ɣà (pp)
on

ɣaa, kaa
identificational verb
(see lesson 1)

X ɣàà
here is X also used as an emphatic marker

ɣáábàà (v)
to try

ɣààgààtá (v)
to be initiated

ɣààɣáá (v)
to understand

ɣààzàɣà (v)
to ask

ɣáázáɣákɛ́ɛ́ (v)
ask questions

ɣálávà (n)
— Wednesday

ɣálé
there is

ɣáléé (adv)
how

ɣàlògíí (n)
month, moon

ɣàlògíívɛ̀tɛ̀ dà
to menstruate
moon-see-with-it

ɣà nà (adv)
that is

ɣàwè (v)
to divide, separate

ɣɛ̀ (v)
to be

ɣɛ X -ma (v)
say to X

ɣɛɛga (v)
to begin

ɣɛ̀ní (v)
was, were

ɣélénàà (adv)
a few days ago

ɣeenepe (adv)
whenever

ɣìlé (adv)
ever

ɣii (n)
mind

ɣìgázíé
think

ɣizi X -ma (v)
to catch X

ɣúgààzìɛmà (v)
to conclude, decide

ɣúgààzìɛ (v)
to guess

K.

káá
see

X Y kaa (v)
X gave birth to Y
te Y kaani...Y was born

káá (v)
this is, these are
(used as emphatic)

káálì (n)
snake

kááwɔ́lɔ́í (n)
grandfather, old man
(term of respect)

káázíɛ́núí (n)
driver

kááɓóózùvɛ́ (n)
parking station
car-park-in-place

kááɓɔ́ígìì (n)
carboy

káɓó (v)
to bless

kai, kaa
seed

káí, káá (n)
bone

kálábó (v)
to teach

kálágávɛ̀ (n)
shoulder (front)

kálaí (n)
rheumatism

kakei (n)
shore

kálákùì (n)
stomach pain

kálámɔ́í (n)
supervisor, craftsmaster

káníí (n)
silver

kăláŋàlàgíí (n)
box

kalapilii (n)
fish hook
hook-throw

kalawo (v)
peel
S, L

káléɓéi (n)
fishnet
fish-catch

káléí (n)
fish

káléwálónúí (n)
fisherman

káléwópúí (n)
fish cup
canned fish

kálíí (n)
hoe

kálágìì
hook

kámíídà (n)
carpenter

kànò (adv)
only

kánúí (n)
driver
car-person

kàpàgíí (n)
penny, money

kásóí (n)
loads, baggage

kásóí (n)
hamper

kátábá
stubbornness

káváívílì (v)
to throw away the trash

kávélétéégɔ̀ (adv)
very much

kávɛ̀láɣàzìɛ̀zú (v)
to try to

káwáláí (n)
big maŋ,
(see kaawɔ́lɔ́i)

kázé (v)
to blame

kea (n)
sibling of the opposite sex

keei (n)
boat

kéélái (n)
piassava tree

kele (n)
one

kéndúsá (n)
cane juice (rum)

kéyá
his father

kéyádéɣéí (n)
paternal uncle
(father's younger brother)

kɛ́ (n)
but

kɛɛ (v)
to do

kɛ́γɛ́ɛ́ (adj)
lazy

kɛ́kɛ́ (n)
maternal uncle

kɛ́kɛ́gìì (n)
chest

kɛlɛkui (n)
ground squirrel

kɛ́ní (conj)
until

kɛ́ɛ́vààmá (adv)
in order to

kɛ́ɛ́vɛ̀γɛlɛ (v)
how to do X

kílíγìlìgìì (n)
circle

kípì (v)
to save

kísègìì (n)
pepper

kítò gàà Y (v)
to promise that Y

kìvɛ̀gìì (n)
pineapple

kízìgìì (n)
file

kókóí (n)
pan, bowl

kóbà (pp)
beside

kódáí (n)
mortar

kódígíí (n)
tribe
(ethnic group)

kódísáléí (n)
country medicine
tribal-medicine

kódísɛ́γɛ́í (n)
country cloth

kókólípáí (n)
big pan

kóléí (adj)
white

kolo (adj)
small

kólúí (n)
iron
L

kólúmìtɛ̀ì (n)
cooking spoon
iron spoon

kólúŋàìnùì (n)
blacksmith
iron-fire-person

kólúŋɛ́nígíi (n)
tool
iron-thing

kómá (adj)
stingy

kómùì (n)
comb

kómùì (n)
comb

kóógéézù (v)
to become pregnant

kóógíí (n)
belly

kóólí (v)
to fit
with -vɛ

kóólíɣíí (n)
cooking pot
lit: iron pot

kóózà (adj)
tall
W, L

koozala (adj)
far

kóózúnɛ́ɛ́vɛ̀
happy

kóózúŋwáláí (n)
belly ache

káázúvɛ̀ (n)
menstrual cramps

kóózúwúló (v)
runny belly

kóózùvɛ̀ (n)
stomach

kópúí (n)
cup

kósíɣí (adj)
full pregnant

kótáí (n)
kitchen = storage building
for grain and cooking place

kótíí (n)
stone

kóvíí (n)
district

kɔ́bèì (n)
clay for daubing a house

kɔi (n)
neck

kɔ́í, kɔɔ (n)
war

kɔ́nkìlìì
concrete

kɔ́lɔ́ (adj)
tired

kɔ́lɔ́í (n)
skin

kɔ́lɛ́í, kɔ́lɔ́ (n)
book

kɔ́lɔ́í (n)
grade

kɔ́lɔ́kɔ́lɔ́mabɔ̀gɔ́pɛ́
all around

kɔ́lɔ́lɛ́ (v)
to teach
book-show

kɔ́lɔ́, lódò (v)
read book
count

kɔ́lɔ́vɛ́lɛ́wùbóí (n)
student

kɔ́lɔ́vɛ́lɛ́í (n)
school
book-house

kɔ́lɔ́vɛ́lɛ́wàláí (n)
university
book-house-big

kɔ́lɔ́wɔ́lɛ́gíí (n)
paper
paper-white

kɔ́lɔ́wɔ̀lɔ̀ì (n)
palaver sauce

kɔ́lɔ́wònè (n)
write

kɔ́ná (n)
year

kɔ̀nɔ́ (adv)
again

kɔŋgii (n)
eggplant

kɔ́ɔ́ (v)
to know

kɔ́ɔ́í (n)
firewood

kɔ́ɔ́ (v)
to feed

kɔ́ɔ́lɛ́zágíí (n)
sweater

kɔ́ɔ́málɔ́ɔ́gìì (n)
socks

kɔ́ɔ́wɔ̀ (v)
wage war
war-put

kɔ́ɔ́lɛ́vìlèì (n)
malaria, fever

kɔ̀pùgíí (n)
cup

kɔ́tàì (n)
ceiling

kɔ́tíí (n)
stone

kɔ́tíŋáí (n)
gravel

kɔ́n (v)
to taste

kɔ́ngìì (n)
odor

kɔ́ngìì (n)
flavor

kɔ́ŋmɛ̀nì (v)
to smell
smell-hear

kɔ́wɛ́í, kɔwɔ (n)
foot

kɔ́ɔ́wɔ́wáláí (n)
shoes
foot-big

kɔ́zɔ́ (v)
to cough

kɔ́zɔ́fɔ̀ɔ̀ì (n)
dry cough

kpáá (adj)
difficult, hard

kpáánà
hard
S, L

kpááwɔ́í (n)
bridge

kpádí (adj)
hot
W, H

kpákálágìì (n)
stool

kpákígìì (n)
shoulder (back)

kpákígíí (n)
fenced in bath place

kpákpa (adj)
large
S, L

kpákpá (adj)
strong

kpákpágìì
scaffold, drying rack

kpálágànúí (n)
farmer

kpálágééɣàlà (v)
to burn farm

kapáĺgéézàì (n)
farm house

kpálágíí
farm

kpáláí (n)
embarrassment

kpáláí (n)
thigh

kpáláííɣɛ̀ɛ̀núúí
farm worker

kpálátókpágàì
to clear farm

kpálé
sweep

kpáná (adj)
strong

kpááságìì (n)
okri = okra

kpází (adj)
yellow, corn

kpázìì (n)
corn

kpéé (n)
wake

kpééléí (n)
papaya

kpéélóó (v)
cry

kpekpe
knock knock

kpétèì (n)
plain

kpétèi (n)
swamp

kpésàgìì (n)
square

kpézéí (n)
bench

kpɛ́dɛ́í (n)
gun

kpɛ́dɛ́vílí (v)
to hunt
gun-throw

kpɛɛnɛgii (n)
palm cabbage

kpɛ́kpɛ́í (n)
cockroach

kpɛ́lɛ́ (n)
beard

kpɛ́lɛ́ɣáí (n)
cutlass

kpɛ́lɛ́zɛ̀ (n)
Kpelle people

Kpɛ́lɛ́zɛ́wóóí (n)
Kpelle (language)

kpɛ́nìɣìgìi (gàà X) (v)
to decide (that X)

kpɛ́tɛ (v)
prepare

kpɛ́tɛ́ (adj)
rich
W, H

kpɛ́tɛ́ (v)
arrange (loads)

kpɛ́tɛ́
to grow

kpɛ́tɛ́ (v)
make

kpídí (adj)
dark
W

kpídí (n)
night

kpídízààmà (n)
deep night

kpíí (n)
pond

kpiikɔlɔi (n)
jaundice

kpílíb̂ílíí (n)
fits, convulsions

kpỹí (n)
worm

kpódá (adj)
sour
W, H

kpódá (adj)
bitter
W, H

kpoe (adj)
green

kpoe (adj)
blue
W, H

kpógápɛ́
all sorts of

kpóí (adj)
red
W, H

kpoi (adj)
ripe
W, L
= red

kpóíỹɛ́
read

kpólóí (n)
salt

kpólóí (n)
soap

kpólów̃álái (n)
soda (NaOH or $NaHCO_3$),
bitter-salt

kpóógìì
door

kpóogíí (n)
excrement

kpóólóí (n)
bread

kpɔ́kɔ́í (n)
evening (early)

kpɔ́kɔ́ɔ́gíí (n)
hammer

kpɔ́kɔ́vòlòì (n)
afternoon

kpɔ́kpɔ́gíí (n)
chair

kpɔ́lé (v)
to drink
W, L

kpɔ́lé (v)
to swallow
W, L

kpɔlɔ (adj)
fat
W, H

kpɔ́lɔ́gìì (n)
head tie

kpɔ́lɔ́gíí (n)
basket

kpɔ́lɔ́kpɔ́lɔ́
round

kpúí (v)
to listen

kpúwó (adj)
short
W, L

kuɛ́lɛ́gìì
story

kúî (n)
quarter, neighborhood

kúló
take, remove, draw it

kúló (v)
to pick

kúló (v)
come from, pull out

kúló (v)
to celebrate

kúló (v)
to return to

kúló (v)
to pull, extract

kúló gàà ŋàzà (v)
to marry a wife

kúló gàà póónù (v)
to marry a husband

kúúí (n)
feast, festival

kw̃álá (v)
to swear, curse

kw̃álái (n)
oath

kw̃áláíwú (v)
to take an oath

kúzù (n)
stomach
see koozu

kwádáɣàŋwálá (n)
sore throat

kwele (adj)
white
also kole

kwɛɛ (v)
to pay for

kwɛ́nígìì (n)
guitar

kw̃ɛ́ɛ́ (v)
to know,
also kɔ́ɔ́

kwɛ́ɛ́í (n)
pay

kwɛi (n)
leopard
also kɔli

kwímàsàgìì
quarter head

L.

lá
him, her, it,
object of gaa
(see text 9.2.5)

là (suffix)
place, to X

là (pp)
to, at

laaliizu (v)
to great, greeting

Láàlìsèdí (n)
Sunday

láámì (v)
to eat

lààvé (v)
to fill

lààzùvɛ̀ (n)
bed
resting place

Làbííà yúízù (n)
Liberia

lábóí (n)
lamp, lantern

lábóíɣáázù (v)
to light the lantern

làmàgɛ́

plentiful
stative of gɛ
from tama

lánòwòwɔ́ (v)
to suffer

làtìì (v)
to finish

láásíí (n)
the last one

là X -gáázù (v)
to show X
(in the eye)

léké (adj)
squeezed in

lésàgíí (n)
eraser

lɛ́
not

lɛ́ gàà X (v)
to show to X
See dɛ

lɛ̀ɛ̀ (v)
to climb

lɛɛ (v)
to raise

lɛ̀tɔ́lɔ́ X-bá (v)
safe
to save X

lìbì (v)
to stay

líí (v)
to go

lìì dɔ́ɓɔ́zù (v)
go to the bathroom
go-bush-to

lìì gàà X (v)
to carry X

lókùì (n)
luck

lókùỹów̃ú (n)
bad luck

lóó (v)
to build

lòò (v)
to stand

lópóí (n)
child

lópówòlòì (n)
child

lɔ́ (v)
to enter

Lɔ̀ɔ̀màgòòi (n)
Lorma (language)

Lɔ́ɔ́mázui (n)
Lorma country

Lɔ́ɔ́sɔ̀ɔ̀ (n)
Russia

lɔ̀ɔ̀zéízù
beginning

lúdíé (n)
radio

lúmùgìì (n)
room

lúóɣálé (v)
to behave

lɔ́váí (n)
fish line

M.

ma (pp)
on, at

maa (prefix)
the aforementioned

màà (n)
grandmother

mààdàɣàì (n)
cassava leaf

mááɣàì (n)
bone

mááɣili (n)
to get dressed

mààlázásáí
among yourselves

máálɛ́vɛ́ (v)
to cut
W

máánɛ̀ɛ̀
it is best

màànííníg̀ìì (n)
shadow

mààsúvɛ̀tɛ̀ (v)
to watch over

máávèè (v)
to bend over

mààvɛ́lɛ́vàì (n)
webbing business
see lesson 13

máávìlà (adv)
quickly
with gaa

máávólóí
the afore-mentioned day

mááwɛ́lí (v)
to learn, practice

mááW̃óí (adj)
sad
W, L

maaW̃oi (v)
to mourn

mááwólí (v)
to study

mááɣíɛí (n)
liquid

mááyìì (v)
to lower

máázàgèngèì (n)
fried plantains

máázágìì (n)
banana

máázákpɔ́gìì (n)
plantain

máázáwóózágíí (n)
plantain

máázɔ̀lɔ̀wò (v)
to get, receive

máázù (pp)
over

mákítìzììŋàzànúí (n)
market woman

màlàdààì (n)
cassava greens
also mààdàɣàì

màlàkài (n)
cassava
also málákùì

málákùì (n)
cassava

málégìì (n)
palm thach

màmà (v)
to thank

mámàwúngíí (n)
first

mándálágìì (n)
hammer

Mandigoo (n)
Mandingo (language)

mánúí (n)
person

máságíí (n)
chief

máságììwógánùí (n)
temporary chief

máságììzɛ̀ì (v)
to elect

másíí (n)
matches

màváí (n)
business
same as fáá

máwómáí (n)
corpse

mawungi (n)
first

mayǎka
naked

màyɛ́ɛ́ (v)
to forbid

màkpón (v)
to wait

mázàléí (n)
medicine (from sálé)
also máázàléí

mazeve (v)
divide

mázíí (n)
kind, type

mazuɓui (n)
a cause

mɛ́lɛ́
should not

mɛ́lí (v)
to hear

mɛ́ní (v)
to hear
also mɛlí

míí (v)
eat
W,L

mííŋɛ́nígìì (n)
food
eat-thing

mìn
where

mìnɛ́
where

mítɛ́í (n)
spoon

mɔdedɔɔ (n)
sugarcane

mɔ́kùlùì (n)
rice (cooked)
from mɔlɔ kolu...rice-pot

mɔ́lɛ́ (adj)
poor
W, L

mɔ́lɔ́bɛ̀tɛ́záléí
fertilizer
rice-improvement-medicine

mɔ́lɔ́í (n)
rice
unprocessed

mɔ́lɔ́ívílí (v)
to plant rice

mɔ́lɔ́ɣáí (n)
rice seed

mɔ́lɔ́ɣɛ́zɛ́í (n)
uncooked rice

mɔ́lɔ́lévé (v)
to harvest rice
rice-cut

mɔ́lɔ́ɔ́vɛ̀
rice
(uncooked)

mɔ́lɔ́wɔ́lɔ́gìì
rice seedling

mótèèzìɛ́vèàìtìɛ̀ (n)
drives
car-travel-people

mótéí (n)
car

moteziɛ (v)
to drive
car-travel

mɔ́wúɔ́vàà (n)
bath (business)

mulu (n)
over there

múíngìì
grass thach

N.

nà
that

náágɔ̀
four

nááɣɛ̀bù
quiet

nààwùlùí
after that

nádááɣɛ̀ X-ba (v)
to harm X

nàìgìì (n)
dime

nàɣàgàà
that is to say

náɣá é kɛ́ɛ́ nà
that is the reason

nàláálɛ́ (conj)
or

nàmà
for this

namakpoo (v)
to wait

nápá (n)
chin

navaama
therefore

návólóí (n)
money

náwódú (v)
to illuminate, clear
W

názá (n)
paternal aunt
also ŋázá

néɓáí (n)
valley

nɛ́ɛ́ (v)
to be sweet

nɛ̀ɛ̀ gaa X (v)
to be friends with X

nɛ́ɛ́ (adj)
agreeable
W, H

nɛ́ɛ́gìì (n)
tongue

nɛ́kɛ̀ (adv)
slowly

nɛ̀pɛ́
every

nɛ́tíá (n)
outside
also ŋɛ́tíá

ni (suffix)
past tense marker

níbíí (n)
knee

níí
this

nììbɔ̀ɔ̀
that (self)

níígíí (n)
tooth

níígíílabáí (n)
toothache

nííkávélé
or the like

níímùlùgìì (n)
orange

níímùlùpɛ́lɛ́vɛ́lɛ́í (n)
lime
orange-small

nííné (adj)
new
W, H

níkɛ́í (n)
cow

nɔ̀
now

nɔ̀
just, only

nɔ́kpɛ́
still

nɔ́wɔ́ (adj)
dirty
W, L

nɔ́wɔ́ (adj)
ugly
W, L

núɓɔ̀gɔ́pɛ́ (n)
everybody

núfááwóógììbó (v)
judge
(to say someones case)

núí (n)
person

númáá (n)
people

númáwúngíí (n)
first people

núúbélíí (n)
open mole

nuugai (n)
human bone

nuwutii (n)
old person

nyakui (n)
crab

nyaluui (n)
cat

ŋaabulaagii (n)
matches

ŋàbúí (n)
fire

ŋadaɓɛɛnuui (n)
deviner

ŋadazei X -va (v)
to hunt X

ŋafui (n)
stilt devil

ŋai
egg
see tɛɛŋai

ŋaibonui (n)
blacksmith

ŋalaŋala
to spoil

ŋámáí (n)
blood

ŋámáwɔ́zɔ́í (n)
bloody cough

ŋápí (v)
to fight

nábàgíí (n)

ŋázáí (n)
wife

ŋázálòmàì (n)
girl

ŋázánùbɛ́lɛ́gìì (n)
panty

ŋázánùùì (n)
woman, wife

ŋázánùlókóbáí (n)
dress

ŋéí, ŋéé (n)
fish

ŋétéá (n)
earth

ŋétéávɛ̀, ŋétéá (n)
outside

ŋɛ́ɛ́ (v)
to laugh

ŋɛ̀ɛ̀zùsíí (v)
to smile

ŋɛ́ní (n)
thing

ŋɛ̀ní (v)
was were
used after lɛ̀ (neg)

ŋɛ́nímáánííníɡìì (n)
picture

ŋíí (v)
to sleep

ŋíígíí
teeth
also nyíígíí

ŋíítìɛ̀ì, ŋiitia (n)
liberty

ŋíítìɛ̀ì, ŋíítìà (n)
    life

ŋìnà (adv)
    tomorrow

ŋìnà
    yesterday

ŋínááwúlósù
    day after tomorrow

ŋínàsúbùì (n)
    tomorrow morning

ŋìnàwásálú
    day after tomorrow

ŋínáwásálúwásálú
    three days hence

ŋíníɓɔ́lé (v)
    to nurse
    breast-drink

ŋíníí
    on breast

ŋínízáígìì (n)
    brassiere

ŋúáfɛ́í (n)
    shame

O.

ówè
    yes

ɔ̀lòò (conj)
    until

ɔ̀vɛ́ɛ́ (conj)
    before

ɔ̀ɔ̀nɔ́gàà
    neither

P.

pá	(adj)	good L
páá	(v)	to kill
págɔ̀		healthy
págɔ̀	(adv)	well (çlearly) with gaa
páíntgìì	(n)	pint
pálávàlàì	(n)	swamp
páláí	(n)	mud
páláí	(n)	wound, sore
pánígìì	(n)	sheet metal
páníkàlìgìì	(n)	zinc roofing
pàsɔ̀ngàì	(n)	passenger
péléí	(n)	path
pélémà	(v)	to be right (on the path)
pélépèlè		a little
péléwópáí	(n)	main road
pɛ		also
pɛ	(suffix)	everyone
pɛ́ɛ́	(v)	to kneel
pɛ́ɛ́	(v)	to spread
pɛ́ɛ́ɣààlìì	(n)	cassava snake
pɛ́lɛ́í		house
pɛ́lɛ́ɣààgìì	(n)	wall
pɛ́lɛ́wɔ̀màì	(n)	roof
pɛ́n	(n)	pen
pɛ́nɛ́í	(v)	to be little, young
pénsóí	(n)	pencil
pɛ́tɛ̀	(v)	to see
Píískɔ̀	(n)	Peace Corps Volunteer
pílɛ́gùlùì	(n)	lumber building wood
pílɛ́	(v)	put (it) down, construct
pín	(n)	paint

pílí (v)
to throw

pílítìì (n)
plate

pítɛ̀ì (n)
picture

pódílɔ́ɔ́ (n)
transact business

pódílɔ́ɔ́nùì (n)
merchant

pólózáá
old (people)
S, L

pótázɛ̀vɛ́ (n)
home

póté (v)
to turn
also translate

pótè (v)
to stir

pótéí (n)
miracle

póónù (n)
husband

póngìì (n)
$4.00
from pound

pɔ́ (pp)
to

pɔbɔ́í (n)
bitterball

pɔlɔ́ (adj)
old
W, L

pɔ́lɔ́gíí (n)
porro

pɔ́lɛ́í, pɔlɔ (n)
mud

pɔ́lɔ́zàà (adj)
old
also pólózàà
S, L

pɔ́lúlàìgìì (n)
hungry time

pɔ́nɛ́ (v)
to write,
also ponɛ

pɔ́ɔ́ (v)
to fell

pɔ́ɔ́nù (n)
husband,
also poonù

pu, wu
in, at

pú (v)
to pour

pų́ (v)
to put
Often used with nouns to
make new verbs.

púú (v)
to build
also pu

púlúí
hunger
púlúí ɣà mà...I'm hungry.

púlúvɛ̀
foot

púpúí
ants

púúgɔ̀
    ten

S.

sàà
    now

sàà (v)
    to die

sàà bàlàà
    welcome

sáábíéílóó (v)
    to mourn

sáágɔ̀
    three

sààmàvɛ̀
    waist

sáázúnììgáázúmàì (n)
    funeral

sáɓáí (n)
    mat

sàɣáí (n)
    market

sáɣávɛ̀ (adj)
    old

sákùì (n)
    turtle

sákpáí (n)
    nose

Sàlàlíónyúízù (n)
    Sierra Leone

sáléí (n)
    medicine

sáléí (n)
    herbes

sáléɣáí (n)
    tablet

sálélììɣɛ̀ɛ̀núí
nurse

sálévɛ́lɛ́í (n)
hospital
medicine-house

sámáí (n)
rainy season

sánígìì (n)
bottle

sápígìì (n)
shop

sápìsúnúí (n)
shop keeper

séébàlàì (n)
ivory bangle

sééb̑énú (n)
sick person

sééb̑é (adj)
sick

sééí (n)
elephant

sééɣɛ̀lɛ̀sù (n)
injection

sèìzùɣɛ́ (v)
to keep

séɣé (v)
to beat, pound

séɣéí (n)
cloth

séɣéí (n)
clothes

sélàí (n)
sister

sénègíí (n)
bottle,
also sánì gíí

sézíí (n)
scissors

Sɛdifolo (n)
Sunday

sɛ́ɣɛ́léésìɣì (n)
injection

sɛ̀nìgíí (n)
20¢
from shilling

sɛ́vɛ́ (v)
chop greens
W

síézìɣì (v)
to last

síɛ́ (v)
to rub

síɛ́ (v)
to travel

síɛ (v)
to walk

síɛ́gììvɛ̀ (n)
season

síɛ́wó (v)
to travel

síɛ́zìɛ̀ (v)
to go for a walk

síɣí (v)
to come from

síɣí
to rise

síγí (v)
to choose

síγí (v)
to take

síkíísù (n)
chicken soup
bouillon cube

sílípáí (n)
slipper

síméndìì (n)
cement

sísílìgíí (n)
mosquito

Sívílí (n)
Saturday

sóí (n)
smallpox

sòγìɛ̀ì (n)
soup

sókpáí (n)
nose, also sákpáí

sòlà (v)
to daub

sóó (v)
to catch it

sɔ́dásì (n)
soldier

sɔ̀lɔ̀wɔ́ (v)
to obtain

sɔmɔgii (n)
torch

sɔ́ɔ́í (n)
saw

sɔ́w̃ɔ́í (n)
price

stɔ́ɔ́gìì (n)
store

sú (pp)
in

súɓù (n)
morning

súγíɛ́
liquid, moisture

súɔ́í
animal

T.

tá (suffix)
some

tá
they will

táámàsàgìì (n)
town chief

táázéí (n)
citizens

tábàgɔ́
together with

táb̂áí
pain

táí
time

táí
when

táí, táá (n)
town

táksí (n)
taxi

tàmáá (adv)
many, alot, plenty
also làmáá

támání
too much
< tamaa

tànɛ̀pɛ́ (n)
any of them

tánísù (adv)
perhaps

tánísú
likely

tápíáwólíí (n)
grass whip

tavagii (n)
tobacco

táwúgɔ̀
nine

táwúsúí
thousand

té félégɔ̀pɛ́
both of them
(all two of them)

téí
you have to
see lesson 13

téí (adj)
black
W, H

téléí (n)
ladder

tépɛ́tɛ́ (v)
to greet

tévé (v)
to cut

tévé (v)
to pass

tévé X -pó (v)
to send to X

tévé X -pɔ́ (v)
to feed

tévéé (n)
table

tévéγɛ̀lɛ̀ (v)
to pass through

tévévólóí (n)
harvest day

tɛ́ɛ́ (v)
to store

Tɛ́ɛ́nɛ̀
Monday

Tɛ́ɛ́nɛ̀kúlágà
Tuesday

tɛ́ɛ́ŋàì (n)
chicken eggs

tɛɛvɛi (n)
black deer

tɛ́ɛ́wùìì (n)
chicken

tɛɛwuluwulugii
chicken soup = magie

tɛ́í, tɛ́ɛ́ (n)
fowl

tɛ́lɛ̀
they (neg.)

tɛ́nɛ̀ì (n)
screening, mosquito net

tɛ́nɛ́kùì (n)
hummingbird

tɛ́ŋàgìì (n)
peanut

tɛ́tɛ̀gìì (n)
palm thach

tí (n)
they

tìɛ̀ (n)
they
object of gàà

tìɛ̀ (suffix)
plural

tíí (n)
work

tííà
called (perfect)
from tilia

tííɓàlààkɛ́ɛ́nùù (n)
worker (odd jobs)

tíígìì (n)
sound

tííɣɛ̀ɛ̀ (v)
to work
work-do

tííkànà
finished

tíɣéí (n)
charcoal

tílí (v)
to invite, call for

tílí (v)
to call

tínɛ́ (n)
rain

tísɛ́í (n)
teacher

títè (v)
to turn

tóbáí (n)
boiled cassava dough

tomu
also

tóó (v)
to drop it

tóó (v)
to build
S, H

tòò gàà gáámà (v)
to be right

tóóí (n)
bush cow

tóókóbáí (n)
shirt

tóókóbáyèèb̑ùògìì (n)
short sleeve shirt

tóókóbáyèèwòòzàgìì (n)
long sleeve shirt

tówáá
he, she, it will

tówàà
here it is

tɔ́bɔ́gìì
torborgie
soup seasoned with soda

tɔ́dɔ́í
themselves, their own

tɔ́lɔ́búb̑àkpàì (n)
danger

tɔ́lɔ́búí (n)
harm, trouble

tɔ́lɔ́búvɛ̀vɛ̀ X -ba (v)
to harm X

tɔɔgii (n)
law

tɔ́ɔ́lɔ̀bɔ̀gìì (n)
bean torborgie

tɔ́ɔ́zéí (v)
to begin

Tɔ́ɔ́zéízùvɛ̀
In the beginning

tɔ́wɔ́í (n)
bean

túúfé (n)
leaf

túwúbɔ̀lɔ̀ì (n)
palm butter

túwúí (n)
palm nuts

V.

va (pp)
for, to
see pa

vàà (v)
to come

vàà gàà X (v)
bring X

vàà X -ba (v)
to agree to X

vààzú (n)
condition (lit: coming)

vàgɛ́
is good

váí, váá (n)
news, palaver, business

váká (v)
to be responsible

vàlá X -zu (v)
to miss X

váló (v)
get well

véléí (n)
way (to do things)
from péléí...road

vélézɛ́ɓɛ́ɛ́
how
way-what

vɛ (suffix)
stative
following weak conditioning words

vɛ (suffix)
definitive suffix
see lesson 8

vɛ̀
where

X vɛ̀ ɣɛ̀ lɛ̀
how to do X
see lesson 14

vɛ̀ì (n)
place

vɛ́lɛ́gíí (n)
pants, see bɛ́lɛ́gíí

vɛnɛpɛ
whereever

viga
some

vììɓɛ́ (v)
to be dizzy
with -vɛ

vííkɛ́
really

vílɛ́ (v)
to get lost

vìlé (v)
to descend, get down
see pílé

vili X -wu (v)
put into X
from pili...throw

vólóɓɛ̀ɛ̀
when

vólóyɛ́ɛ́í
dry season

von X -ba (v)
to touch X

vɔ́nɛ́ɛ́vɛ̀ (n)
fare
from fɔ́nɛ́í...to pay

vùlì (v)
to faint

W.

wálá (adj)
big, see gwálá

w̃álá (adj)
bitter
W, L

wàlàgìlàà
1000

w̃ɛ́ɛ́ (v)
to know

wɛ̀lɛ̀
you (pl) neg

wɛ́lɛ́ (v)
to see

wɛ́lɛ́ X -ba (v)
to see (far)

w̃ɛ́ní ɓɛ̀ (v)
to drive birds

w̃ɛ́níí (n)
bird
also w̃óníí

wìɛ̀
you (pl)
obj. of gàà

wíí (n)
quarter

wíyɛ́ (v)
to urinate

wòbá
near

wódóvɛ́
well, healthy
(stative form)

w̃óí
interesting

wóínì (v) gaa X
to want X

w̃óínì gàà X -vɛ (v)
to love X

wóítòsù (v)
to listen to

X w̃óívàà
it's up to X

wólí (v)
to be correct, sufficient

wóló (v) X -m
to finish X, complete

wónàì (n)
window

wóníí
birds

woo X (v)
to play with X

wòòdákáí (n)
rafters

wóóvɛ̀nɛ̀ (adv)
softly
little voice

wóówàlà (adv)
loudly
big voice

wóówùlù (adv)
softly

Wóózù
Woozi, a town

X wòòzù yà wùlòzú.
Does X have a runny belly.

wózáí (n)
ground

wózáívìlɛ̀ (v)
to plow

wózáíwò
brushing

wózálókpá (v)
to clear the brush

wózávìlìlàìgɛ̀ (n)
planting time

wózáwúngàì (n)
brushing

wɔ́lɔ́í (n)
cry

wɔ̀lɔ̀wɔ̀lɔ̀
by gone, traditional

wɔ́lɔ́wɔ̀lɔ̀
never

wɔ́nɔ́ (v)
to germinate

wɔ́nɔ́kùlù (v)
to provide food

X- wɔ̀ɔ̀láá vɛ
X's own place

wɔ́ɔ́vɛ̀
place

wù (pp)
under
from bu

wúígìì (n)
Western, American, foreign
also wùìgìì

Wùìgòò (n)
English

wùìkpìlìì (n)
paw paw, papaya

Wùìtààzù (n)
America

Wùìtààzùnúí (n)
American

Wùìtààzùyúí (n)
United States

wùìtɛ̀ɛ̀ì (n)
duck (western chicken)

wúítu (v)
to listen

Wùìtùì (n)
pineapple

wùìzòwèì (n)
western doctor

wulo X -zu (v)
to come from

wulɔboi (n)
warrior

wùlù (v)
to follow

wúlú (pp)
behind

wúndáí (n)
window

wúndálalawuo (v)
to wash windows

wúndéɣáí (n)
hair

wúndíí (adj)
fresh

wúndíɣáwùlùbádí (n)
hair grease

wunfei (n)
shame

wúngììì (n)
head

X wùngíí ɣà bɛ̀dɛ́zú?
Does X have a headache?

wúngìlà
one hundred

wúnkpɔ́lɔ́í (n)
brain
head marrow

wúnpílé (v)
to vomit
head-throw

wúntáɓà (n)
headache

wúzìɣì (v)
to rise

Y.

yà
you (s) will

yáígááyíí
each other

yànɔ̀ɔ̀
your own

yè (pn)
you (sg)
object of çàà

yèè ɣà Y -bu
X agrees about Y

yéétá
perhaps

yééwù
within

Yɛ̀gɛ́lɛ́sì
England

yéívó X -ba
to feel X

yɛ̀vù (v)
to breathe

yɛ̀vù (v)
to live

yɛvui (n)
life

yìɛ (pn)
us
(object of gàà)

yíɛ́vílé (v)
to stop, get down from a car

yógbógíí
gown (for men)

ỹ̀ow̃ú (n)
bad, evil

ỹɔ́w̃ɔ́í (n)
enemy

ỹúágààzíé
think

yuwu (n)
beach, shore

Z.

zàà (adv)
today

X zaama (pp)
among X

zaalai (n)
sacrifice

zádégíí (n)
sandy

zai (n)
monkey bridge

záɣá (adj)
by gone, historic

záɣáí (n)
market

zákpá (v)
to run, move

zákpáí (n)
nose, see sákpáí

zámáí (n)
strangers (foreigners)

zàmàzùvɛ́
in the center place

zéé (n)
hand
from zeya

zééb̑òb̑òlààvɛ̀ (n)
lips

zééfèlègɔ̀
20
2 sets of hands

zeelakulai
handy

zèèmá (v)
to forget

zéémáí (n)
head man

zégéí (n)
hole

zéínì
sitting

zèìzù (n)
stages

zèìzúvɛ̀
seat (sitting place)

zekpu (v)
to limp

zéyá (n)
hand

zéyá
to me

zéyávɛ̀ (n)
palm of hand

zɛ̀ɓɛ̀ɛ̀ (n)
what

zɛ̀ɓɛ́ɛ́ (adj)
what kind

zɛ́ɓɛ́ɛ́ é kɛ́ɛ́
why did you

zɛ́ízú (n)
kinds

zɛ́pɛ́í (n)
word

zɛ́vàì (n)
life

zɛzɛpɛ (n)
everyone

zíávɛ̀ (n)
water side

zíɛ́ (v)
to walk
also síɛ́

zíɛ́í (n)
water

zíɛ́ɓádíí (n)
boiled H_2O
water-hot

zíɛ́mázíɛ́ (n)
nausea

zíɛ́wáláí (n)
river
water-big

zíɛ́wáláí (n)
diarrhea
water-big

zíɛ́wùì (n)
spider

zìgàì (n)
cigarette

zìgàléíɓɔ̀lè
to smoke
cigarettes-drink

zíí (n)
nation, tribe

zíí (n)
heart

zíílá (n)
peace

ziilaaɓo (v)
to enjoy

zíílávɛ̀
happy

zíílígíí (n)
cobra

zííwɔ́ɔ́í (n)
clan/tribal language

zííyáwàlàvɛ́ X -ma (v)
be angry with X

zíízéí (adj)
cold

zíízɛ́lɛ́í (n)
worry

zíɣí (v)
to leave

zíɣí (v)
to get up
see wuziɣi

zíɣí (v)
to take

zíɣí X -zu (v)
to come from X

zìté
reach

zítí (v)
to arrive

zóó (v)
to be able
see soo

zóó (v)
can

zóó (v)
to catch an illness
see Lesson 17

zóó (v)
to take , catch

zóó (v)
to destroy

zóóvɛ̀ì (n)
axe
also zóóvàì

zówéí, zówó (n)
doctor
also zoo

zówódáɣáí (n)
potato leaf

zówógíí
sweet potato
also zówégíí

zɔ́í, zɔ́ɔ́ (n)
other

zɔ́í, zɔ́ɔ́ (n)
thing

zɔ̀ɔ̀gìì (n)
noise

zɔ̀ɔ̀láítìɛ̀
market things
merchandise

zɔ́lɔ́ (v)
to sew

zɔ̀lɔ̀wɔ́ (v)
to obtain (acquire)
see sɔ̀lɔ̀wɔ́

Zɔ̀zɔ̀ó (n)
Zorzor (town)

zu..

zu (pp)
in, (see su)

zù
me
object of gàà

zúízù (n)
country

zúnúí (n)
man

zúnúlomaí (n)
boy

zúw̃áávɛ̀ (n)
floor

zúw̃ávɛ̀ (n)
ground

zùwóí (v)
to heal

zùwùlùzú
means

DICTIONARY (ENGLISH - LORMA)...........able to appoint

A.

able, to be (v)
zóó
see sóó

able (v)
b̂ègà

afternoon (n)
kpɔ́kɔ́vòlòì

after that
nààwùlùí

again (adv)
kɔ̀nɔ

agreeable (adj)
nɛ́ɛ́
W, H

to agree about X
yèè ɣà X-bu

to agree to X (v)
vàà X-ba

all around
kɔ́lɔ́kɔ́lɔ́mabɔ̀gɔ́pɛ́

all sorts of
kpógápɛ́

alot, plentiful (adv)
gàà táámà

also
tomu

also
pɛ

also, more (adv)
bàláá
yàbàláá...you too

although (adv)
ànɛ́ɛ́

America (n)
Wùìtààzù

America (n)
Amɛ́líkà

American (n)
Wùìtààzùnúí

among X (pp)
X zaama

among yourselves
mààlázásáí

and X (conj)
évéè X-ba

and (conj)
bògá

be angry with X (v)
zííyáwàlàvɛ́ X-ma

animal
súɔ́í

ants
púpúí

ant (n)
fɔlɔí

answer (n)
gááwòtégìì

to answer (v)
gááwòtè

to answer (v)
gooiɣawote
turn-word

any of them (n)
tànɛ̀pɛ́

to appoint (v)
gúló

arm (n)
bòkógìì

arrange (loads) (v)
kpɛ́tɛ́

around (adv)
góígòí

to arrive (v)
zítí

as long as (adv)
àníínɔ̀

to ask (v)
ɣààzàɣa

ask questions (v)
ɣáázáɣákɛ́ɛ́

aunt (paternal) (n)
názá
also ŋázá

axe (n)
zóóvɛ̀ì
also zóóvàì

B.

bad, evil (n)
ỹòw̃ú

bad thing (n)
fáányɔ̀ì

Bandi people (n)
ɓádí

Bandi (language) (n)
ɓádíwòò

bag (n)
bɛbɛ̀ì

baggage (n)
kásóí

banana (n)
máázagìì

basket (n)
kpɔ́lɔ́gíí

bath (business) (n)
mɔ́wúɔ́vàà

bath place (n)
kpákígíí
fenced in bath place

battery (n)
bátùlúwótíí
(battery stones)

to be (v)
ɣa

to be (v)
gaa

to be (v)
ɣɛ̀

beach, shore (n)
yuwu

bean (n)
tɔ́wɔ́í

bean torborgie (n)
tɔɔ́lɔ̀bɔgìì

beard (n)
kpɛ́lɛ́

to beat (v)
dówá

to beat, pound (v)
séγé

because (conj)
bɔ́ɔ́vɛ̀láálè

bed (n)
bɛ̀tɛ́í

bed (n)
làazùvɛ̀
resting-place

beer (n)
bíyá

before (conj)
ɔ̀vɛ́ɛ́

to beg, to worship (v)
fɛli
Gáláfɛ́lí...to pray

to begin (v)
γɛɛga

to begin (v)
tɔ́ɔ́zéí

beginning, In the
Tɔ́ɔ́zéízùvɛ̀

to behave (v)
lúóγálé

behind (pp)
wúlú

to believe (v)
dáávɛ́gá

bell (n)
dálágìì

belly (n)
kóógíí

belly ache (n)
kóózúŋwáláí

belt (n)
bɛ́tìì

bench (n)
kpézéí

to bend over (v)
máávèè

beside (pp)
kóbà

best, it is
máánɛ̀ɛ̀

big (adj)
gwálá

big one (n)
bɔ̀ɔ̀lɔ̀kélégìì

bird
w̃óníí

bird (n)
w̃ɛ́níí

birth (X gave birth to Y) (v)
X Y kaa
te Y kaani...Y was born

bitter (adj)
kpódá
W, H

bitter (adj)
gw̃álá
W, L

bitterball (n)
pɛ́bɔ́í

black (adj)
téí
W, H

blacksmith (n)
ŋaibonui

blacksmith (n)
kólúŋàìnùì
iron-fire-person

to blame (v)
kázé

to bless (v)
káɓó

blind person (n)
gáázuwɛ́lɛ́núí

blood (n)
ŋámáì

blue (adj)
kpoe
W, H

boat (n)
keei

body (n)
dɔ́tɔ́zú

body pain (n)
dɔ́tɔ́zúlába

to boil (v)
gílí

boiled cassave dough (n)
tóbáí

bone (n)
máàɣàì

bone (n)
káì, káá

bone (n)
gáì
gáíɣálíí...broken bone

book (n)
kɔ́lɛ́í, kɔ́lɔ́

both of them
té félégɔ̀pɛ́
(all two of them)

bottle (n)
sánígìì

bouillon cube (n)
síkíísù
chicken soup

bowl (n)
ɓolii

box (n)
kàláŋàlàgíí

boy (n)
zúnúlomaí

bangle, bracelet (n)
báláì

brain (n)
wúnkpɔ́lɔ́í
head marrow

bridge (n)
kpááwɔ́í

monkey bridge (n)
zai

brassiere (n)
ŋínízáígìì

bread (n)
kpóòlóí

to break, split (v)
gálé

on breast
ŋíníí

to breathe (v)
dɛ́vú

to breathe (v)
yɛ̀vù

brick (n)
bílíkìì

briefs, shorts (n)
dɔ́lɔ́í

bright, to be (v)
foló

bring X (v)
vàà gàà X

brusying (n)
wózáuúngaì

to brush (clear the brush) (v)
wózáìwò

bucket (n)
bɔ́kìì

bug (n)
fɔ́fɔ̀í

to build (v)
púú
also pú

to build (v)
tóó
S, H

to burn (v)
gálá

to bury (v)
dóówù

bus (n)
bɔ́síí

bush, countryside (n)
dɔ́ɓɔ́í

bush cow (n)
tóóí

business (n)
màváí
same as fáá

business, to transact (v)
pódìlɔ́ɔ́

but (n)
kɛ́

butter pear, avacado (n)
bɔ̀ɔ̀tàpõwéngìi

to buy (v)
gɛ́ɛ́
see géyá

to buy (v)
géyá

C.

to call (v)
tílí

to be called X (v)
gɛ̀ X mà

campus (n)
fííɣàì

can (v)
zòó

cane juice (rum) (n)
kéndúsá

canned fish (n)
káléwópúí
fish cup

car (n)
mòtéí

carboy (n)
káábɔ́ìgìì

careless (adj)
fiibɛɛ

carpenter (n)
kámíídà

to carry X (v)
lìì gàà X

case (n)
fáawòogìì

cassava (n)
màlàkàì
also málákùì

cassava greens (n)
màlàdààì
also mààdàɣàì

cassava leaf (n)
mààdàɣàì

cat (n)
nyaluui, ỹáálé

to catch X (v)
ɣizi X-ma

to catch (v)
sóó

to catch an illness (v)
sóó

a cause (n)
mazuɓui

ceiling (n)
kɔ̀tàì

to celebrate (v)
kúló

cement (n)
símèndìì

center (in the center place)
zamazuvɛ

chair (n)
kpɔ́kpɔ́gíí

change (n)
fèlèpáɣɛ́í

charcoal (n)
tíɣéí

chest (n)
kɛ́kɛ́gìì

chicken (n)
tɛ́ɛ́wùìì

chicken soup = magie (n)
tɛ́ɛ́wùlùwùlùgíí

chief (n)
máságíí

chief (temporary) (n)
màságììwóganùí

chief (town) (n)
táámàsagìì

child (n)
dúúí

child (n)
lópóí

child (n)
lópówòlòì

children (n)
dɛ́ítìɛ̀

chimpanzee (n)
gólóí

chin (n)
nàpá

to choose (v)
síɣí

Church
Gálápɛ́lɛ́í

cigarette (n)
zìgàì

circle (n)
kílìɣìlìgìì

citizens (n)
táázéì

clan/tribal language (n)
zííwóóí

clay for daubing a house (n)
kɔ́bèì

clean (adv)
gúwá
W, L

to clear the brush (v)
wózálókpá

cleverly (adv)
gàà gɛ̀lɛ́gɛ́lɛ

to climb (v)
lɛ̀ɛ̀

cloth (n)
séɣéí

clothes (n)
séɣéì

cobra (n)
zíìlígíí

cockroach (n)
kpɛ́kpɛ́ì

cold (adj)
déí
W, L

cold (adj)
zìízéí

to come (v)
vàà

comb (n)
kòmúì

come from, pull out (v)
kúló

to come from X (v)
zíɣí X-zu

to come from (v)
wúló X-zu

concerning
évílé X-bà

to conclude, decide (v)
ɣúgààzìɛ̀ma

concrete (n)
kɔ́nkìlìì

condition (lit: coming) (n)
vààzú

to construct (v)
pílɛ́

to cook (v)
gílí

to cook (v)
díɣíɣìlì
(pot cook)

corn (n)
kpázìì

corpse (n)
máwómáí

to be correct, sufficient (v)
wólí

cotton (n)
gɛ́zɛ́í

cottonwood tree (n)
gówéí

to cough (v)
kɔ́zɔ́

cough (bloody) (n)
ŋàmáwɔ́zɔ́í

cough (dry) (n)
kɔ́zɔ́fɔ̀ɔ̀ì

to count (v)
dódó

country cloth (n)
kódísɛ́ɣɛ́í

cousin (n)
dábé

cow (n)
níkɛ́í

crab (n)
nyakui

cry (v)
kpéélóó

cry (n)
wɔ́lɔ́í

cup (n)
kópúí

cup (n)
kɔ̀pùgíí

to curse (v)
kw̃álá

to cut (v)
tévè

to cut (v)
máálɛ́vɛ́
W

cutlass (n)
kpɛ́lɛ́ɣáí

D.

danger (n)
tɔ́lɔbúɓàkpàì

dark (adj)
kpídí
W

to daub (v)
sòlà

daughter (n)
dúúnázánúí

dawn (n)
gɛ́láá bógà

day (n)
fóléí, fóló

deaf person (n)
góívólénùì

decide
gɛ́

to decide (v)
dévé

to decide (that X) (v)
kpɛ́nìɣìgìi (gàà X)

deer (n)
dípaì

deer (black) (n)
tɛɛvɛi

to defecate (v)
lìì dɔ́ɓɔ́zù
go bush-to

to descend, get down (v)
vìlé
see pílé

to destroy (v)
zóó

devil, stilt (n)
ŋafui

deviner (n)
ŋadaɓɛɛnuui

diarrhea (n)
zíɛ́wáláí
water-big

to die (v)
sàà

difficult, hard (adj)
kpáá

difficult, to be (v)
ɓóíyáí gɛ̀ɛ̀

dime (n)
nàìgìì

dirty (adj)
nɔ́wɔ́
W, L

to discuss (v)
ɓɔ́íwɔ́
to put talk

district (n)
kóvíí

to divide (v)
gàwè

divide (v)
mazeve

dizzy, to be (v)
vììɓɛ́
with -vɛ

to do (v)
kɛ́ɛ́

doctor (n)
dɔ́gìtáí
(western)

doctor (n)
zówéí, zówó
also zoo

doctor (western) (n)
wùìzòwèì

dog (n)
gílɛ́wùì

dollar (n)
dàlàgíí

door
kpóógìì

to doubt
gìvílígà

dove
ɓííɓɔ́kùì

dress (n)
gílímázéɣéí

dress (n)
ŋázánùlókóbáí

to dress oneself (n)
mááɣili

to drink (v)
kpɔ́lé
W, L

drive (v)
kpɛ

to drive birds (v)
w̃ɛní ɓɛ̀

to drive (v)
moteziɛ

driver (n)
káázíɛ́núí

driver (n)
kánùí
car-person

drivers (n)
motèèzíɛvèàìtìɛ
car-travel-people

to drop it (v)
too

drying rack
kpakpagìì

dry season (n)
foloŋɛɛnii

dry season
vólóyɛ́ɛ́í

drum (n)
gbɛgbɛi

duck (western chicken) (n)
wùìtɛ̀ɛ̀ì

dust (n)
fìvìlìgìì

E.

ear (n)
    gói

earth (n)
    ŋétéá

earring (n)
    goízùŋɛ́níí

to eat (v)
    láámì

eat (v)
    míí
    W, L

edge (n, pp)
    gwílé, wile

to effect X (v)
    bóí X la

egg
    ŋáí
    see tɛ́ɛ́ŋàì

chicken eggs (n)
    tɛ́ɛ́ŋàì

eggplant (n)
    kɔŋgii

eight (adj)
    dɔ́ɔ̀sáva

either X or Y
    ɓalaa X ɲnɲɣɛ Y

to elect (v)
    máságììzɛ̀ì

elephant (n)
    sééí

embarrassment (n)
    kpáláí

enemy (n)
    ỹɔw̃ɔ́ì

engineer (n)
    íngíníá

to enjoy (v)
    zííláábo

England
    Yɛ̀gɛ́lɛ́sì

English language
    Bòsúwóì (n)

English language (n)
    Wùìgòì

to enter (v)
    lɔ́

eraser (n)
    lésàgíí

evening (early) (n)
    kpɔ́kɔ́í

ever (adv)
    ɣìlé

every
    nɛ̀pɛ́

everybody (n)
    núɓɔ̀gɔ́pɛ́

everyone (n)
    ɓɔgɔpɛ

everyone (suffix)
    pɛ

everyone (n)
    zɛzɛpɛ

evil (adj)
    ỹòw̃ú

excrement (n)
kpóógíì

eye (n)
gáázùvɛ̀

eye pain (n)
gáázúlábá

F.

face (n)
gáázù

factory (n)
fátòléí

to faint (v)
vùlì

fare (n)
báí

fare (n)
vɔ̀nɛ́ɛ́vɛ̀
from fɔ́nɛ́í...to pay

far (adj)
koozala

farm
kpálágíí

farm, to burn (v)
kpálágééɣàlà

farm, to clear (v)
kpálátókpágàì

farm house (n)
kápálgéézàì

farmer (n)
kpálágànúí

farm worker
kpálálííɣɛ̀ɛ̀núúí

fat (adj)
kpɔ́lɔ́
W, H

father
kéyá

feast, festival (n)
kúúí

to feed (provide food) (v)
wɔ́nɔ̀kùlù

to feed (v)
kɔ́ɔ́

to feel X
yéívón X-ba

to fell (v)
pɔ́ɔ́

fertilizer
mɔ́lɔ́ɓɛ́tɛ́záléí
rice-improvement-medicine

fierce thing (n)
dúúwónɛnì

fifteen cents (n)
eétígìì

to fight (v)
ŋápí

file (n)
kisigìì

to fill (v)
lààve

to finish (v)
làtìì

to finish X, complete (v)
wóló X-m

finished
tííkànà

fire (n)
ŋàbuí

firewood (n)
kɔ́ɔ́í

first (n)
mawungi

first (n)
mámàwúngíí

first (adv)
dɛ́
goes with mámàw̃ùùgíí

Fisebu (town) (n)
Fíísɛ̀bù

fish (n)
kaléí

fish (sp) (n)
dákáí

fish (n)
ŋeí, ŋéé

fishline (n)
lɔ́vaí

fish hook (n)
kalapilii
hook-throw

fish net basket (n)
gbeagii

fishnet (n)
káléɓéi
fish-catch

fisherman (n)
káléwálónúí

to fit (v)
kóólí X-vɛ

fits, convulsions (n)
kpílíɓílíí

five (adj)
doóluo

fix (adj)
dɛ́ɛ́zìdà

flashlight (n)
flásláítìì

flavor (n)
kɔ́ngìì

floor (n)
zúw̃áávɛ̀

flour (n)
flàwàí

to follow (v)
wùlù

food (n)
dàámíí

food stuff (food-thing) (n)
dáámíŋàníí

food-stuff (n)
mííŋɛ́nígìì
eat-thing

foolishly (adv)
gàà vɛ́lábà

foot (n)
kɔ̀wɛ̀í, kɔ́wɔ́

foot
púlúvɛ̀

for (somebody)
fɛ, vɛ

for, to (pp)
bɛ́

for this
nàmà

to forbid (v)
màyɛ́ɛ́

forest (n)
góyàí

to forget (v)
zèemá

fork (n)
fɔ̀ɔ́í

four
náágɔ̀

fowl (n)
tɛ̀í, tɛ́ɛ́

France (n)
Flánzùzúízù

to free (v)
ɓɔ́yéè

French language (n)
Flénzùwòó

fresh (adj)
wúndíì

Friday (n)
dɔ̀ɔ́wálà

friend, acquaintance (n)
bòí

to be friends with X (v)
nɛ̀ɛ̀ gàà X

to frighten (n)
dùúwó

to frown (v)
gáázùγìlì
(to tie face)

fruit (n)
gúlúvàì
tree-things

to fry (v)
géngé

full, pregnant (adj)
kósíγí

funeral (n)
sáázùnììgáázúmàì

G.

gas
fángáí

gasoline (n)
bɛ̀ɛ̀nzìí

to gather round X (v)
gaalɛɛ X-ba

Gbarnga (town) (n)
ɓ̠áángà

to germinate (v)
wɔ́nɔ́

to get, receive (v)
màázɔlɔwo

to get lost (v)
bìlì

to get up (v)
zíɣí
see síɣí

to get well (v)
ɓáló

girl (n)
ŋàzálòmàì

to give to X (v)
fé X-ya

to go (v)
líì

goat (n)
bìlíí

God
Gálágíí

good (adj)
pà
L

is good
vàgɛ́

good morning (you woke up)
èŴùngɔ́

government (n)
gɔ́mɛ́ntíì

government worker (n)
gɔ́mɛ́ntílííɣɛ́ɛ́nùì
government-work-do-person

gown (n)
fèlègíí

gown (for men)
yógbógíí

grade (n)
kɔ́lɔ́í

grainery, kitchen (n)
bàlàgáí

grandfather, ɔld man (n)
kááwɔ́lɔ̀í
(term of respect)

grandmother (n)
màà

grass
gwíí

grass whip (n)
tápíáwólíí

gravel (n)
kɔ́tìŋáí

to greet, greeting (v)
láálíìzú

green (adj)
kpoe

greens (n)
gúlùwulùgíí

to greet (v)
tépɛ́tɛ

ground (n)
wózàí

ground (n)
zúw̃avɛ

ground squirrel (n)
kɛlɛkui

to grow
kpɛ́tɛ́

to guess (v)
ɣúgàazìɛ

Guinea (n)
Gíníyúízù

guitar (n)
kwɛ́nígìì

gun (n)
kpɛ́dɛ́í

H.

hair (n)
wúndéɣáí

hair grease (n)
wúndíɣáwùlubádí

hammer (n)
kpɔ́kɔ́ɔ́gíí

hammer (n)
mándálágìì

hamper (n)
kásóí

hand (n)
zeyà

hand (n)
zèé
from zeya

handy
zeelakulai

hard
kpáánà
S, L

happy
kóózúnɛ́ɛ́vɛ̀

happy
zíílávɛ̀

to harm X (v)
nádááɣɛ̀ X-ba

to harm X (v)
tɔ́lɔ́búvɛ̀vɛ̀ X-ba

harvest day (n)
tévévólóì

to harvest rice (v)
mɔ́lɔ́lévé
rice-cut

hat (n)
bɔ́lɔ́gìì

to have X (v)
ɣà X-zeya
be in X's hand

have to
téí
see lesson 13

have to (adv)
fétéí

have to (adv)
fɛ̀ní

head (n)
wúngìì

headache (n)
wúntáɓà

head tie (n)
kpɔ́lɔ́gìì

head man (n)
zéémáì

to heal (v)
zùwóì

to heal, get well (v)
ɓáló

healthy
págɔ̀

to hear (v)
mɛ́lí

to hear (v)
mɛ́ní
also mɛ́lí

heart (n)
zíì

heavy, important (adj)
bííɣá

to help X (v)
ɓó X-pá

herbes (n)
sáléí

here (adv)
be
also...ve

here is X also used as an emphatic marker
X ɣàà

hill (n)
gízígìì

by gone, historic (adj)
záɣá

hoe (n)
kálíí

to hoe (v)
bílí

hole (n)
zégéí

home (n)
pótázɛ̀vɛ́

hook (n)
kálágíí

hospital (n)
sálévɛlɛ́í
medicine-house

hot (adj)
kpádí
W, H

hour (n)
gálávà

house
pέlέí

how (adv)
ɣálée

how
vélézέɓέέ
way-what

how to do X (v)
kέέvὲɣὲlε

how to do X
X vε ɣὲ lὲ
see lesson 14

how much (adv)
díídέ
also liidε

human (n)
ɓuse
(nubuse...human being)

human bone (n)
nuugai

hummingbird (n)
tεnέkùì

one hundred
wúngìlà

hunger
púlúí
púlúí ɣà mà...I'm hungry

hungry time (n)
pɔ́lúlàìgìì

to hunt X (v)
ŋadazei X-va

hunter (n)
dúsóí

husband (n)
pɔ́ɔ́nù
also póónù

I.

if (conj)
àníì

in (pp)
sú

in, at
pú, wu

injection (n)
sééγɛ̀lɛ̀su

in order (conj)
ágɛ́

to illuminate, clear (v)
náwódú
W

to be initiated (v)
γààgààtá

in order to (adv)
kɛ́ɛ́vààmá

interesting
w̃óí

to invite, call for (v)
tílí

iron (n)
kólúí
L

ivory bangle (n)
séébàlàì

Ivory Coast (n)
Afɛ́lɛ́kòyúízùì

J.

jaundice (n)
kpiikɔlɔi

judge (v)
núfááwóógììbó
(so say someones case)

just, only
nɔ̀

justice (n)
gáámàì

K.

to keep (v)
seìzùγɛ̀

to kill (v)
páá

kind, type (n)
mázíí

kinds (n)
zɛ́ìzú

kitchen & storage building (n)
kótáí
for grain

to knead (v)
gáyéwù

knee (n)
nìbìí

to kneel (v)
pɛ́ɛ́

knife (n)
bówáì

knock knock
kpékpé

to know (v)
kw̃ɛ́ɛ́

to know (v)
kɔ́ɔ́

Kpelle (language) (n)
Kpɛ̀lɛ́zɛ̀wóóí

Kpelle people (n)
kpɛ́lɛ́zɛ̀

L.

ladder (n)
téléí

lamp, lantern (n)
lábóí

lanter, to light the (v)
lábóíγáázù

language (n)
góóí

large (adj)
kpákpa
S, L

the last one (n)
láásíí

to laugh (v)
ŋɛ̀ɛ́

law (n)
tɔɔgii

lazy (adj)
kɛ́γɛ́ɛ́

leaf (n)
dàγàí

leaf (n)
tùúfé

to learn, practice (v)
mááwɛ́lí

to leave (v)
zíγí

to leave (v)
bèbá

to leave (v)
gɛ́

to leave X
bègà X-ba

leopard (n)
kwɛ́í
also kɔ́lí

leprosy
gééí

to let X (v)
ɓe X-ba

Liberia (n)
Làbíìayúízù

liberty, justice (n)
ɓɔ̀yíɛ̀máí

liberty (n)
ŋíítìɛi, ŋiitia

to lie down (v)
dáá

life (n)
zɛvaì

life (n)
yɛvui
see zɛ́vú, zɛ́vái

life (n)
ŋíítìɛ̀ì, ŋíítìà

likely
tánísú

lime (n)
niímùlùpɛ́lɛ́vɛ́lɛ́í
orange-small

to limp (v)
zekpu

lips (n)
dáawòlògíí

lips (n)
zeébòɓòlààvɛ̀

liquid
súɣíɛ́

to listen (v)
wuitu

to listen to (v)
wóítòsù

to listen (v)
kpúí

to be little, young
pɛ́nɛ́í

a little
pélépèlè

to live (v)
yɛ̀vù

to look for X (v)
gààzìè gàà X

loads, baggage (n)
kásóì

Lorma (language) (n)
Lɔ̀ɔ̀màgòòì

Lorma Country (n)
Lɔ́ɔ́mázui

to get lost (v)
vílɛ́

loudly (adv)
wóówàlà
big voice

to love X (v)
w̃óínì gàa X-vɛ

to lower (v)
mááyìì

luck (n)
lókuì

bad luck (n)
lókùỹõw̃ú

lumber N)
pílɛ́gùlùì
building wood

M.

malaria, fever (n)
kɔɔlɛvilei

make (v)
kpɛ́tɛ́

man (n)
zúnúí

Mandingo (language) (n)
Mandigoo

many, alot, plenty (adv)
tàmáá
also làmáá

market (n)
dɔ́wɔ̀í

market (n)
sàɣáí

market woman (n)
mákítìzììɲàzànúí

market things
zɔ̀ɔ̀láítìɛ̀
merchandise

to marry a husband (v)
kúló gàà póónù

to marry a wife (v)
kúló gàà ŋàzà

mat (n)
sáɓáí

matches (n)
ŋaabulaagi

matches (n)
másíí

means
zùwùlùzú

medicine (n)
sáléí

medicine (from sálé) (n)
    mázàléí
    also máázàléí

menstrual cramps (n)
    káázúvɛ̀

to menstruate
    ɣàlògíívɛ̀tɛ̀ dà
    moon-see-with-it

merchant (n)
    pódílɔ́ɔ́nùì

mind (n)
    gìgíí

miracle (n)
    pótéí

to miss X (v)
    vàlá X-zu

open mole (n)
    núúbélìí

meat (n)
    dábáí

Monday
    Tɛ́ɛ́nɛ̀

money (n)
    návólóí

month
    gálógìì

Monrovia (n)
    Dùkɔ́ɔ́

moon (n)
    ɣàlogíí

morning (n)
    súɓu

mortar (n)
    kódáí

mosquito (n)
    sísílìgìí

mosquito net, screening (n)
    tɛ́nɛ̀ì

mother, fathers other wives, aunt (n)
    dèé

mountain (n)
    gízígwáláí

to mourn (v)
    maawoi

to mourn (v)
    sáábíéílóó

mouth (n)
    dáa

mud (n)
    páláí

mud (n)
    pɔ́lɛ́í, pɔlɔ

mute person (he can't talk)
    ɛ́lɛ̀bóí

N.

nail (n)
dɔ̀ɔ́méléí

naked
mayaka

name (n)
dàá

name (n)
dàázéígíí
also dàázíígíí

nation, tribe (n)
zìí

nausea (n)
zíɛ́mázíɛ́

near
wòbá

neck (n)
kɔ̀í

never
wɔ́lɔ́wɔ̀lɔ̀

neither
ɔ̀ɔ̀nɔ́gàà

new (adj)
nííné

news
fáí, fáá

news, palaver, business (n)
váí, váá

news, word (n)
góóí

nickel (n)
fóúngìì

night (n)
kpídí

night (deep) (n)
kpídízàamà

nine
táwúgɔ̀

no (adv)
bà

noise (n)
zɔ̀ɔgìì

nose (n)
sákpáí

nose (n)
sókpúí
also sákpúí

not
lɛ́

now
nɔ̀

now
sàà

number (n)
nábàgíí

to nurse (v)
ŋíníbɔ́lé
breast-drink

nurse
sálélììyɛ̀ɛ̀núí

O.

oath (n)
kw̃álái

oath, to take an (v)
kw̃áláíwú

to obey (v)
góómɛní
(hear word)

to obtain (v)
sɔ̀lɔ̀wɔ́

odor (n)
kɔngìì

oil (n)
gúlɛ́í, gɔ́lɔ́

okra = ókrì (n)
kpáságìì

old (adj)
pɔ́lɔ́
W, L

old (adj)
pɔ́lɔzàà
S, L

old (people)
pólózáá
S, L

old, by gone, traditional
wɔlɔ̀wɔlɔ

old (adj)
sáɣavɛ̀

old person (n)
nuwutii

old man (n)
káwɔ́laí

older brother (sibling) (n)
dìɛ̀

on (pp)
ba

on, at (pp)
ma

on (pp)
ɣa

one (n)
kele

one (n)
gìlágíí
also yìlá

onions (n)
yávaí

only (adv)
kàno

or (conj)
ɓaa

or (conj)
nàlaálɛ́

or the like
nííkávélé

orange (n)
níímùlùgìì

other (n)
zɔ́í, zɔ́ɔ́

each other
yáígááyíí

others (n)
bálaá

over' (pp)
maázu

over there (n)
mulu

X's own place	X-wɔ̀ɔ̀láávɛ̀
your own	yànɔ̀ɔ̀
own (self)	gele
outside (n)	nɛ́tíá also ŋɛ́tíá
outside (n)	ŋétéávɛ̀, ŋétéá
outside (pp)	búlú

P.

pain	táɓáí
paint (n)	píỹ
palaver sauce (n)	kɔ́lɔ́wɔ̀lɔ̀ì
palm tree (n)	dɔ́í
palm oil (n)	gúlɛ́í, gúlɔ́
palm cabbage (n)	kpɛɛnɛgii
palm thach (n)	málégìì
palm butter (n)	túwúbɔ̀lɔ̀ì
palm nuts (n)	túwúí
palm of hand (n)	zéyávɛ̀ .
pan, bowl (n)	kókóí
pan (large) (n)	kɔ́kɔ́lípáí
pants (n)	vɛ́lɛ́gíí see bɛ́lɛ́gíí
pants, short (n)	bɛ́lɛ́kpúógìì
pants, long (n)	bɛ́lɛ́kóózágìì
panty (n)	ŋázánùbɛ́lɛ́gìì

papaya (n)
kpéeleí

paper (n)
kɔ́lɔ́wɔ́lɛ́gíí
paper-white

parking station (n)
kaáɓóósùvɛ́
car-park-in-place

to pass (v)
tévé

to pass through (v)
tévéɣɛ̀lɛ̀

passenger (n)
pasòngàì

path (n)
pèléí

paw paw, papaya (n)
wùìkpìlìì

pay (n)
kwɛ̀ɛ́í

pay (n)
fɔ̀nɛ̀í

to pay for (v)
kwɛɛ

peace (n)
zíílá

Peace Corps Volunteer (n)
Píískɔ̀

peanut (n)
tɛ́ŋàgìì

peel (v)
kalawo
S, L

pen (n)
pɛ́n

pencil (n)
pénsòí

penny (n)
kàpàgíí

people (n)
númàá

first people (n)
númáwúngíì

people (n)
béá
also...-vea
(used as plural)

pepper (n)
kísègìì

hot pepper (n)
ɓólóɓólóí

perhaps (adv)
tánísù

perhaps
yéétá

person (n)
mánùí

person (n)
núí

piassava tree (n)
kééláí

to pick (v)
kúló

picture (n)
ŋɛ́nímáánííníg ìì

picture (n)
pítɛ̀ì

pig (n)
búìngì

pigeon (n)
fólogíí

pile up, mash (v)
gáayìì
see lesson 19 text

pillow (n)
dáboí

pineapple (n)
wuìtùì

pineapple (n)
kìvɛgìì

pint (n)
paíntgìì

place (n)
vɛ̀ì

place
wɔ́ɔ́vɛ̀

plain (n)
kpeteì

to plant rice (v)
mɔ́lɔ́ívílí

planting time (n)
wózávìlìlàìgɛ

plantain (n)
máázákpɔgìì (n)

plantain (n)
máázáwóózágíí

plantain, fried (n)
máázàgèngèì

to plaster on mud (v)
gúó

plate (n)
pílítìì

to play with X (v)
woo X

please
èvéévà

plentiful
tàmáá

pliers (n)
bɛɛngii

to plow (v)
wózáívìlɛ̀

plum (guava) (n)
búlóngìì

pond (n)
kpíí

poor (adj)
mɔlɛ́
W, L

poorly (adv)
gàà nỹɔ́wà

porro (n)
pɔ́lɔ́gíí

pot (n)
díɣíí

pot for cooking (n)
kóólíɣíí
lit: iron pot

potato (sweet) (n)
zówógíí
also zowegii

potato leaf (n)
zówódáɣáì

to pound (v)
séɣé

pound ($4.00) (n)
pongii

to pour (v)
pú

power
gaaɓaa

to practice (v)
mááwɛ́lí

preacher (n)
Gálágóówónùì
(God-word-put-person)

to become pregnant (v)
kóógéézù

pregnant (adj)
kósíɣì

prepare (v)
kpɛ́tɛ́

to pray (v)
Gáláféílí

price (n)
sɔ́w̃ɔ́í

to promise that Y (v)
kítò gàà Y

to promise X that Y (n)
boga X-ma gaa Y

to prove (v)
gàamàwò

to pull, extract (v)
kúló

to pull weeds (v)
gúííwúló
weed-pull

to put (v)
pú
Often used with nouns to make new verbs.

put (it) down, constrict (v)
pílɛ́

put into X (v)
vili X-wu
from pili...throw

put things away
díɣìzòɣàláítìcwo
(tidy up)

Q.

quarter (n)
wíí

question (n)
gáázaì

to question (v)
gáázákɛ́

quickly (adv)
gàà máávìlà

quiet
nááɣɛ̀bù

quietly (adv)
gàà wóówùlù

quarter, neighborhood (n)
kúíí

quarter head
kwímàsàgìì

R.

radio (n)
ludíé

rafters (n)
wòòdákáí

rain (n)
tínɛ

rainy season (n)
sámáí

to raise (v)
lɛɛ

rat trap (n)
ɓíỹíí

reach
zìté

read
kpóíỹɛ́

to read (v)
dódó

read (v)
kɔ́lɔ́lódò

reason, that is the
nàɣá é kɛ́ɛ́ nà

real (adj)
bɔ́bɔ́

really
viíkɛ́

to receive (v)
máázɔ̀lɔ̀wò

red (adj)
kpóì
W, H

red (adj, n)
bóí
see kpoi

to remember (v)
gààyɛ̀

to remove chaff (v)
gaavɛɛ

to remove stem (v)
daabɛlɛ

to repeat (v)
ɓɔ́ɔ́wùlù
(say again)
also...
bówùlù

to be responsible (v)
váká

resting place (n)
daázù

to return to (v)
kúló

rheumatism (n)
káláí

rice (n)
mɔ̀lɔ́í
unprocessed

rice seed (n)
mɔ́lɔ́ɣáí

rice (uncooked) (n)
mɔ́lɔ́ɣɛ́zɛ́í

rice (uncooked) (n)
mɔ́lɔ́ɔ́vɛ̀

rice seedling
mɔ́lɔ́wɔ́lɔ̀gìì

rice (cooked) (n)
mɔ́kùlùì
from mɔlɔ kolu...rice-pot

rice birds (n)
ɓázáí

rich (adj)
kpɛtɛ
W, H

right, to be (v)
pélémà
(on the path)

right, to be (v)
tòò gàà gáámà

ripe (adj)
kpóí
W, L
(= red)

to rise (v)
wúzìɣì

river (n)
zíɛwáláí
water-big

road (main) (n)
péléwópíá

roof (n)
pɛ̀lɛ́wɔ̀màì

room (n)
lumúgìì

rope (n)
gàlíí, gálú

round
kpɔ́lɔ́kpɔ́lɔ́

to rub (v)
gúó

to run, move (v)
zákpá

to run (v)
ɓìzé

to run (v)
bìzà

runny belly (v)
kóózúwúló

Russia (n)
Lɔ́ɔ́Sɔ̀ɔ́

S.

sacrifice (n)
zaalai

sad (adj)
mááw̃óí
W, L

St. Paul river (n)
Dé

salt (n)
kpólóí

sandy (n)
zádégíí

Saturday (n)
Sívílí

sauce (n)
dábáí

to save (v)
kípì

to save (v)
dáázɛɣɛ

to save X (v)
lɛ̀tɔ́lɔ́ X-bá

saw (n)
sɔ́ɔ́í

say to X (v)
ɣɛ X-ma

to say to X (v)
bó X-bá

school (n)
kɔ́lɔ̀vɛ́lɛ́í
book-house

to scratch, hoe (v)
bílí
(bare the earth)

seat (sitting place)
zèìzúvɛ̀

second one (n)
    félékèle

secret (n)
    dóówùfàì
    (buried matter)

see
    káá

to see (v)
    pɛ́tɛ̀

to see (v)
    wɛ́lɛ̀

to see (far) (v)
    wɛ́lɛ́ X-ba

seed
    káí, káá

to send to X (v)
    tèvé X-po

to separate, divide (v)
    gàwè

serious matter
    bògàfáí

seven (adj)
    dɔ́ɔ̀fèlà

to sew (v)
    zɔ́lɔ́

shadow (n)
    màànííníɡìì

shame (n)
    ŋúáfɛ́í

shame (n)
    wunfei

sheep (n)
    báálàgíí

sheet metal (n)
    pánígìì

shirt (n)
    tóókóbáí

shirt (long sleeve) (n)
    tóókóbáyèèwòòzàgìì

shirt (short sleeve) (n)
    tóókóbáyèèɓùògìì

shoes (n)
    kɔ́ɔ̀wɔ́wáláí
    foot-big

shop (n)
    sápígìì

shop keeper (n)
    sápìsúnúì

shore (n)
    kakei

short (n)
    ɓuogii

short (adj)
    kpúwó
    W, L

to shoot (v)
    kpɛ́dɛ́vílí
    gun-throw

shoulder (front) (n)
    kálágávɛ̀

shoulder (back) (n)
    kpákígìì

to show to X (v)
    dɛ́ gaa X

to show X (v)
    là X-gáázù
    (in the eye)

to show to X (v)
lɛ́ gàà X

sibling of the opposite sex (n)
keá

sick (adj)
seéɓè

sick person (n)
séébénú

Sierra Leone (n)
Sàlàlíónyuízù

silver (n)
kánìí

to sing (build song) (v)
góóìlóó

sister (n)
sélàí

sitting
zéínì

skin (n)
kɔ̀lɔ̀í

skin spots (n)
dɔ́wɔ́í

sky (n)
géèzù

to sleep (v)
ŋíí

sleeping
dáázù

slipper (n)
sílípàí

slowly (adv)
gàà pɛ́lɛ́pɛ̀lɛ̀

slowly (adv)
gàà zìlɛ̀mà

slowly (adv)
nɛ́kɛ̀

small (adj)
kóló

smallpox (n)
sóí

to smell (v)
kɔ́ŋmɛ̀nì
smell-hear

to smile (v)
ŋɛ̀ɛ̀zùsíí

to smoke
zìgàléíɓɔ̀lè
cigarettes-drink

snake (n)
káàlì

snake (cassava) (n)
pɛ̀ɛ́ɣààlìì

socks (n)
kɔ́ɔ̀málɔ́ɔ́gìì

softly (adv)
wóówùlù

softly (adv)
wóóvɛ̀nɛ̀
little voice

soldier (n)
sɔ́dásì

some
viga

some (suffix)
tà

son (n)
dúúzùnùì

song (n)
gòóí

soap (n)
kpólóí

soda (NaOH or $NaHCO_3$) (n)
kpólów̃álái
bitter-salt

sore (n)
pàláí

sorry (sw)
béèná

sound (n)
tíìgìì

soup (n)
sòɣìɛ̀ì

sour (adj)
kpódà
W. H

spider (n)
zíɛ́wùì

spirit (n)
gɔ́vɛ̀í

to splash (v)
dúúlú

to split, break (v)
gálè

to spoil
ŋalaŋala

spoon (n)
mítɛ́ì

cooking spoon (n)
kólúmìtɛ̀ì
iron spoon

to spread (v)
pɛ́ɛ́

square (n)
kpésàgìì

squeezed in (adj)
léké

stages (n)
zèìzù

to stand (v)
lòò

to stay (v)
lìbì

still, although (adv)
ɓàlàà

still
nɔ́kpɛ́

stingy (adj)
kómà

to stir (v)
pótè

stomach (n)
kóózùvɛ

stomach pain (n)
kálákùì

stone (n)
kɔ́tíí

stone (n)
kótíí

stool (n)
kpàkálágìì

to stop, get down from a car (v)
yíɛvìlé

store (n)
stɔ́ɔgìì

to store (v)
tɛ́ɛ́

story
kuɛ́lɛ́gìì

strangers (foreigners) (n)
zámáí

strong (adj)
kpáná

strong (adj)
kpákpá

stubbornness
kátábá

to study (v)
máawólí

student (n)
kɔ́lɔ́vɛ́lɛ́wùbóí

student (n)
ɓɔ́ígìí

to suffer (v)
lánòwòwɔ́

to suffer (v)
dáánɔ́wɔ̀

sugarcane (n)
mɔdedɔɔ

sun (n)
fóléí, fóló

Sunday (n)
Láálìsèdí

supervisor, craftsmaster (n)
kálámɔ̀ɔ́í

to swallow (v)
kpɔ́lé
W, L

swamp (n)
pálávàlàì

swamp (n)
kpetei

sweater (n)
kɔ́ɔ́lɛzágíí

sweep
kpálé

to be sweet (v)
nɛ́ɛ́

T.

table (n)
tévee

tabler (n)
sáleɣaí

to talk to X (v)
ɓóí X-pɔ́

tall (adj)
kóóza
W, L

take, remove, draw it (v)
kúló

to take, catch (v)
zóó

to take (v)
síɣí

to taste (v)
kɔ́n

taxi (n)
táksí

teacher (n)
tísɛ́ì

to teach (v)
kálábò

to teach (v)
kɔ́lɔ́lɛ̀
book-show

tear (n)
gáázùmáyɛ̀ì

tease, annoy (v)
gááwɔ́lɔ̀

to tell X (v)
bó X-má

ten
púúgɔ̀

teeth
ŋííɡíí
also nyííɡíí

thach (grass) (n)
múíngìì

thach (palm) (n)
tɛ́tɛ̀gìì

to thank (v)
màmà

that
nà

that (rel) (pp)
gàà

that (self)
nììbɔ̀ɔ̀

that is to say
nàɣàgàà

themselves
gáázàgà

themselves, their own
tɔ́dɔ́í

therefore
navaama

thigh (n)
kpàlàí

thing (n)
ŋɛ́ní

thing (n)
zɔ́í, zɔ́ɔ́

think
γìgázíé

think
ỹúágààzíé

this
níí

this is, these are (v)
káà
(used as emphatic)

thousand
táwúsú

thousand
wàlàgìlàà

thread (n)
gézuí

three
sáágɔ̀

sore throat (n)
kwádáγàŋwalá

to throw away (v)
pílí

to throw (v)
pílí

Thursday (n)
Dɔ̀ɔ́gbɔ̀kɔ

to throw away the trash (v)
káváívílì

to tie (v)
gílí

time
táí

tired (adj)
kɔ́lɔ́

to (pp)
bɛ́

to, at (pp)
là

to (pp)
pɔ́

tobacco (n)
tavagii

today (dv)
zàà

together with
tábàgó

tomorrow (adv)
ŋìnà

tomorrow morning (n)
ŋínàsúbùì

tomorrow (day after) (n)
ŋìnàwásálú

three days hence
ŋínáwásálúwásálú

tomorrow (day after)
ŋínáàwúlósù

tongue (n)
nɛ́ɛ́gìì

too much
támání
< tamaa

tool (n)
kólúŋɛ́nígíí
iron-thing

tooth (n)
níígíí

tooth brush (mouth wash) (n)
dááwùòì

toothache (n)
níigíílábáí

torborgie
tɔbɔ́gìì
soup seasoned with soda

torch (n)
sɔmɔgii

to touch X (v)
foo X ba

town (n)
táí, táá

trap (n)
bɛlíí

tree, stick, wood (n)
gúlíí, gúlú

tree felling (n)
gúlúwɔ́ɔgàì

tribe (n)
kódígíí
(ethnic group)

tribal medicine (n)
kódísáléí

trouble, harm (n)
tɔ́lɔ́búí

trousers (n)
bɛ́lɛ́gíí

truth (n)
gáamaì

to try (v)
ɣáábàa

to try to (v)
kávɛ̀láɣàzìɛ̀zú

Tuesday (n)
Tɛ́ɛ́nɛ̀kúlágà

to turn (v)
póté
also translate

to turn (v)
títè

turtle (n)
sákùì

two (adj)
félégɔ̀

U.

ugly (adj)
nɔwɔ́
W, L

uncle (paternal) (n)
kèyádéɣéí
(father's younger brother)

uncle (maternal) (n)
kɛ̀kɛ́

under (pp)
ɓu, wù

to understand (v)
gááɣàà

United States (n)
Bósúyùì

United States (n)
Wùìtààzuyúí

university (n)
kɔ́lɔ́vɛ́lɛ̀waláí
book-house-big

until (adv)
èɣɛ̀sù
also èyɛ̀sù

until (conj)
kɛ́ní

until (conj)
ɔ̀lòo

upwards (in the sky) (pp)
géézù

it's up to X
X w̃óìvàà

to urinate (v)
wíyɛ́

V.

valley (n)
néɓáí

very (adv)
ɓɔ̀ɔ̀

very much (adv)
kávélétéégɔ

voice (n)
góòí

to vomit (v)
wúnpílé
head-throw

W.

waist
sààmàvɛ̀

to wait (v)
màkpón

to wait (v)
namakpoo

wake (n)
kpéé

to walk (v)
zíɛ́
also síɛ́

wall (n)
pɛlɛɣààgìì

to want X (v)
wóínì gàa X

war (n)
kɔ́í, kɔ́ɔ́

war,(to wage) (v)
kɔ́ɔ́wɔ̀
war-put

warrior (n)
wulɔɓoi

was, were (v)
ɣɛ̀ní

was were (v)
ŋɛ̀ní
used after lɛ̀ (neg)

wash (v)
guó
W, L

to wash one's face (v)
gáázúwùò

to wash windows (v)
wúndálalawuo

to watch over (v)
mààsúvɛ̀tɛ̀

wash house (n)
guoɓakigii
also guovɛlɛi

water (n)
zíɛ́í

water (boiled) (n)
zíɛ́ɓádíí
water-hot

water side (n)
zíávɛ̀

way (to do things) (n)
véléí
from péléí...road

webbing business (n)
màavɛ́lɛ́vàì
see lesson 13

Wednesday (n)
ɣálávà

weed (n)
guíí

week (n)
dɔ́wɔ́í

well (adv)
gàà págɔ̀

welcome
sàà bàlàà

well (clearly) (adv)
págɔ̀
with gàà

well, healthy
wódóvɛ́
(stative form)

Western, American, foreign (n)
wúìgìì
also wùìgìì

what (n)
zɛ̀ɓɛ̀ɛ̀

what kind (adj)
zɛ̀ɓɛ́ɛ́

what, who (n)
ɓɛ́ɛ́

when (adv)
taí

where
mìn

where
mìnɛ́

when
vólóɓɛ̀ɛ̀

whenever (adv)
ɣeenepe

where
bɛ́, vɛ́

wherever
vɛnɛpɛ

which, what (n)
àɓɛ́

white (adj)
kóléí

white (adj)
kwèlé

why did X
zɛ́ɓɛ́ɛ́ X kɛ́ɛ́

wife (n)
ŋàzaí

wind (n)
fangai

window (n)
wúndáí

window (n)
wónàì

wine (n)
dòi, dóó

within
yééwù

with (pp)
gàa

woman, wife (n)
ŋázánùùì

Woozi, a town
Wóózù

word (n)
góóí

word, name (n)
dáázíɛ́gìí

word (n)
zɛ̀pɛ́í

worm (n)
kpỹí

work (n)
tìí

to work (v)
tííɛ̀ɛ̀
work-do

worker (odd jobs) (n)
tííɓàlàakɛ́ɛ́nùù

working
bòtííɣɛ́ɛ́là

worry (n)
zíízɛ̀lɛ́í

to write (v)
pɔ́nɛ́
also pónɛ́

wound, sore (n)
páláí

write (n)
kɔ́lɔ́wònè

Y.

yam (n)
bóí

wild yam (n)
gáwúí

year (n)
kɔná

yellow (n)
kpázíí
see lesson 11

yes
ówè

yesterday
ŋìna
see also bàhóónà...two days ago
ɣélénàà...a few days ago

yet (adv)
dɛ́

younger brother (sibling) (n)
déɣéí

Z.

zinc roofing (n)
pánákàlìgìì

Zorzor (town) (n)
Zɔ̀zɔ̀ó

CHAPTER VI

LEARNING THE SOUND SYSTEM OF MANDE LANGUAGES

A. INTRODUCTION

This chapter is designed to provide a deeper basis for the understanding of the sound systems of the Mande languages of Liberia. Although every attempt has been made to reduce the amount of technical language used to convey the information in this chapter, it has not been eliminated altogether, for what is used is felt to be necessary for the presentation.

Nevertheless, what follows can be followed by an enthusiastic reader with no previous training in linguistics or language learning. For those seeking only further practice in the recognition of the phonetic distinctions found in Mande it is possible to skip directly to section F where there are listening exercises which may be carried out with the accompanying cassette tape. Then, if there is some confusion about the nature of the sound contrast being studied, the learner may then refer back to the section which discusses the nature of this contrast.

B. THE SYSTEM OF SOUNDS

A language consists of three major subsystems. It has an inventory of words known as a lexicon. It has a set of rules by which these words are arranged into sentences, known as syntax. Finally it has a sound system which consists of a set of discrete contrastive sounds, known as phonemes. Phonemes, or rather strings of phonemes are used to render words as sound images so that they may be spoken and understood. This chapter is about how those sounds are organized and understood.

While phonemes are written using Roman alphabetic characters, they should not be confused with the letters used to write English. These are non-phonemic, because they violate the principle that a phoneme stands for only one contrastive sound. The following examples illustrate that the English alphabet violates this condition.

Letter	Sound	Word
s	s	see
	z	raise
	ž	measure
c	s	city
	k	cow
o	a	pod
	ɔ	log
	i	women
	ow	smoke

Because of these discrepancies, English is not perfectly phonemic which means that it is not always possible to determine how a word is going to be pronounced (given its spelling) or written (given its sound). Because of these indeterminancies in the writing system of English and many other written languages, linguists have found it useful to develop a phonemic writing system to use when analyzing a language. This writing system is also of value to learners of a language because it eliminates the guesswork in reading and writing in the language.

When you first hear a new language, you will first note that it is made up of a series of syllables. The syllable is a good place to begin breaking down the sounds of language because all three major phonetic elements: consonants, vowels and suprasegmental features are associated with the syllable.

At the heart of the syllable is a syllabic unit which is generally, though not always (as is pointed out later) a vowel. Vowels are sounds that receive their distinctive acoustical properties through the resonant properties of the mouth (oral cavity) and the throat (pharyngeal cavity) through adjustments of the tongue, tongue root, lips and jaw. The various resonances produced by these different oral shapes can be explained by the same principle as the resonant sound produced by blowing on a beer bottle, though the resonances produced by the more complex shapes of the vocal tract are of course more complex.

C. VOWELS

1. Classification

Linguists find it useful to classify vowels by:

a) the location of the tongue:

1. Is it toward the front of the mouth or
2. is it toward the back of the mouth?

b) the location of the jaw:

1. Is the jaw closed so that the tongue is high in the mouth or
2. is the jaw open so that the tongue is low in the mouth?

c) the shape of the lips:

1. Are the lips rounded or
2. are the lips unrounded?

The reason for this classification is that linguists have found that vowels that share common properties, (i.e. high vowels, front vowels or rounded vowels tend to function alike as we will show later). The classification of the vowels used in the Mande languages in Liberia is given in the following chart.

	Front	Back	Back & Rounded
High	i	ɨ	u
High Mid	e	ë	o
Low Mid	ɛ	ʌ	ɔ
Low	(æ)	a	

None of these sounds exactly like those of English therefore the following equivalents should only be taken provisionally, to help you learn to recognize the sounds associated with the symbols. Drills are given in section F to familiarize you with the use of this system in transcribing Mande sounds.

2. Description of Individual Vowels

2.1 The front, unrounded vowels:

/i/ bee, neat, tidy, me

The English vowel differs from the Mande /i/*, by being glided, that is, followed by y a semivowel (see below). Thus the word bee when transcribed phonetically is /biy/. If you say this word slowly, you may sense the /y/ at the end of the vowel.

Due to historical change, English words spelled with an i (e.g. bite) are no longer pronounced with an i (ee sound) but rather an eye sound. In making the transition to the phonemic writing system you may confuse the orthographic i (eye) and the phonemic /i/ (ee).

/e/ ("closed e") day, take, say

The English vowel differs from the Mande e in that it is glided, like the high vowel, it is followed by a y semivowel (see below). Thus the English word day, when transcribed phonetically, is /dey/ or perhaps /dɛy/. You can detect this y glide by saying the word day very slowly. You will note that while you start on the vowel /e/, you end with the vowel /i/. In learning to say this vowel say it slowly and cut off the y "offglide". For many speakers, the first part of the vowel is lower (closer to a phonetic /ɛ/) than a phonetic /e/. You can approximate the higher and tenser /e/ by tightening your lips, as in a smile.

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*The use of the slashes here is to distinguish phonemic transcriptions from orthographic.

Lorma and Kpelle have a definite suffix -i which when added to a word ending in a front vowel produces something like the glided vowels discussed above. This gives an opportunity to hear the glided and nonglided as contrastive forms.

Lorma	indefinite	definite
porcupine	pívi	pívíí
road	péle	péléí
house	pɛ́lɛ́	pɛ́lɛ́í

/ɛ/ ("open e") bed, lead, red, better

The English sound is virtually identical to the corresponding Mande sound.

/æ/ ("diagraph") bath, laugh

This sound does not occur in the Mande languages, but has been included in the list, because of the potential confusion between the written (orthographic) a of English and the phonemic /a/ (see 3 below).

2.2 The back, rounded vowels:

/u/ school, pool, tube, coo

This vowel, like the English iy is glided, but this time with the semivowel /w/ rather than /y/. Thus the above words are rendered phonetically as /skuwl/, puwl, tuwb, kuw/.

/o/ ("closed o") go, row, tone, toe

Like the vowel /ey/ this vowel is heavily glided. Again if you say these words slowly, you will note the presence of a w semivowel following the vowel nucleus (e.g., /gow, row, town and tow/.

/ɔ/ ("open o") caught, law, frog, log

This vowel is quite similar in sound and production to the underlined English vowels to the left. The only problem being that the ɔ sound does not exist in some dialects of American English. If, for example, when you say the words *caught* and *cot* the same way, or cannot hear any appreciable difference between them you are going to have to learn to hear and produce this contrast. Secondly, speakers from different regions do not agree on which English words have this open o sound. For some, words such as *frog*, *log*, *hog*, and so forth are pronounced with an *a* vowel, while for others they are pronounced with an open *o*.

2.3 The back (or central) unrounded vowels:

/ɨ/ ("barred i")   just (see comments)

This is not a contrastive sound in English but occurs as a variant of the general unstressed vowel known as schwa, /ə/. Therefore it is roughly the equivalent of the second vowel in *muffin* or in the word *just* when unstressed.

/ɨ/ appears as a variant of the corresponding front vowel /i/ in Kpelle and southwestern dialects or Lorma, particularly following velar consonants (see below) which because they are articulated with the tongue back tend to draw the front vowel back.

Kpelle (ŋiliŋ/ = [ŋɨlɨŋ] 'bugabug'. (Square brackets are used to mark variant pronunciations). The Lorma *u*, particularly the word *su* 'in' is sometimes pronounced with this variant, e.g. *sɨ*.

/ë/   none

/ë/ is the higher mid equivalent of barred ɨ. It appears as a variant of /e/ in Kpelle and Lorma, particularly following velar consonants. (*k*, *g*, *ɣ*, *ŋ*). For a definition of "Velar" see section D2.1. Kpelle: /Kele/ = [Këlë]

/ʌ/ ("carrat")   b*u*t, c*u*t, p*u*t, h*u*t

This vowel is found in some but not all English words written with a short *u*, (note the pronunciation of *put*, which has an *oo* sound rendered phonetically as a lax *u* written but not described here.

Like the two back unrounded vowels *ʌ* is also a variant of the corresponding front vowel *ɛ* in Kpelle and Lorma, particularly following velars. Kpelle: /kɛlɛ/ = [kʌlʌ]

/a/ h*o*t, l*o*t, h*o*pper

This is the only low vowel in Mande, and should cause little difficulty to the speaker of English other than the tendency to confuse it with the written (orthographic) *a* which as we pointed out earlier is pronounced as /æ/.

3. Diphthongs

Diphthongs are sequences of a vowel and a semivowel which tend to act as a single unit. We have already mentioned the diphthongs /*iy*, *ey*, *uw* and *ow*/ above. In addition, English has the diphthongs /ay/ as in *sky*, *tie* and *light*, /aw/ as in *cow* and *now*, /oy/ as in *boy*, *toy* and *noise*. These sounds do not occur in the Mande languages. However, the sequences /*ii*, *ei*, *ɛi* and we now add/*ai*/ are found in some of the Mande languages but because *i* acts as a full vowel and not a nonsyllabic semivowel, these are generally not considered diphthongs.

4. Orthographic Conventions

As mentioned earlier the phonemic writing system is not in wide use for the writing of Liberian languages. For example personal names and locations have been rendered in standard English orthography. Becuase of the inadequacies of the English orthography to render certain Africa sounds, a number of conventions have been developed. These are given as follows:

Convention	Phonimic Value	Comments/Examples
ie	/i/	Bodegie = /Bodɛgi/
ue	/u/	Bague = /Bagu/
eh	/ɛ/	Zleh Town = /Zlɛ taw̃/
ea*	/ɛ/	Salayea = /Salayɛ/
or	/ɔ/	Zorzor = /Zɔzɔo/ Lorma /Lɔɔma/

*This seems to be a Lorma/Kpelle convention only.

5. Nasalized Vowels

A nasalized vowel is a vowel in which some sound is allowed to escape through the nose (nasal cavity) as well as the mouth (oral cavity). While nasal vowels exist in English they are noncontrastive variants of oral vowels usually derived form the nasalization of an adjacent nasal consonant spilling onto the vowel, as such words as moon, [mũwn]; soon [sũwn]; and can't [kæ̃æ̃t] illustrate. Nasalization is marked by placing a tilde /~/ over the vowel. In the Mande languages, nasalization is contrastive...especially in Kpelle.

6. Vowel Length

Mande languages have contrastive vowel length. That is some syllables may be longer in duration than others. This difference can signal a difference in meaning as in the following Lorma examples:

kálíí	hoe	káálíí	snake
máságìì	chief	mááságìì	corn

D. LEARNING MANDE CONSONANTS

1. Classification

In addition to the vowels, which form the nucleus of most syllables, are the consonants. They are so called because they "sound with" the vowel and are accordingly found on either side of the vowel. While it is common to find consonants on either end of the English syllable, s t r e n g th, consonants in Mande tend to appear before rather than after the vowels. In other words, Mande syllables tend to be "open" (an open syllable is one in which no consonants follow the vowel, e.g., pɛ, lɛ, kpɔ). The one exception to this is the velar nasal /ŋ/ in Kpelle. Some open syllables cause trouble for English speakers, because the sound ɛ does not occur in English open syllables. (This is the reason for the development of ea and eh as a way of writing /ɛ/: see section C.)

Furthermore, Mande allows very few consonant clusters in a syllable initial position (before the vowel). These clusters only involve /l/, (as in /Flomo/ 'personal name' and as in /kwele/ 'big.'

The consonants of the Mande languages are given in tabular form below:

	Labial	Dental	Palatal	Velar	Labio Velar
STOPS:					
Voiceless	p	t	č	k	kp
Voiced	b	d	ǰ	g	
IMPLOSIVES:	ɓ	ɗ			gɓ
FRICATIVES:					
Voiceless	f	s	š		
Voiced	β V	z	ž	ɣ	
NASALS:	m	n	ñ	ŋ	ŋm
LIQUIDS:		l,r			
SEMI VOWELS:			y		w

These sounds have been arranged in such a way that the rows and columns contain similar classes of sounds. For example, it was pointed out in the preceeding section that the front vowels (/i, e and ɛ/) were often backed (converted to ɨ, ë and ʌ respectively) or that vowels tended to be nasalized following a nasal consonant. These terms, of course do not have to be learned, though they may be useful in helping you understand the pronunciation of these sounds.

2. Points of Articulation

Part of the production of a consonant involves either the complete or partial obstruction of the flow of air in the oral cavity. This is accomplished through bringing an articulator, lower lip, or the front, mid or back of the tongue into proximity with a point of articulation associated with the upper part of the mouth. These points of articulation are discussed below. Individual sounds will be discussed later.

2.1 Labial:

The term labial means "pertaining to the lips." There are two types of possible labial articulation: bilabial (both lips) /p, ɓ, and β/ and labial dental (lower lip and upper teeth) /f, and v/.

2.2 Dental:

Dental articulations involve moving the front part of the tongue behind the upper teeth as in /t, d, s, z, n, r and l/.

2.3 Palatal:

While these sounds are rare in Mande languages they do occur. They are produced by bringing the mid part of the tongue in the hard palate region as in /č, ǰ, ď, ž, ñ and y/.

2.4 Velar:

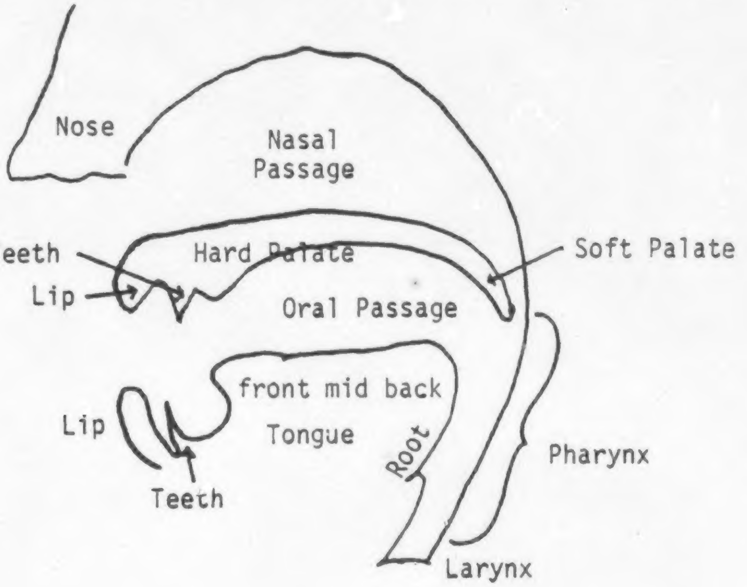
This sound is produced by raising the back of the tongue to the region of the soft palate as in /k, g, ɣ, ŋ./

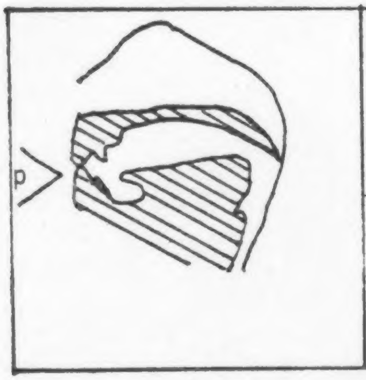
2.5 Labio-Velar:

This sound is the most difficult sound for speakers of English to master. First it involves the simultaneous articulation of a labial and a velar. It is as though you were trying to say cookpot or lugbolt but with open syllables (e.g. coo-kpot and lu-gbolt). Secondly, these sounds are often pronounced with ingressive air (the air moves into the mouth during the first moments of articulation before it is followed by egressive air from the lungs (the normal mode). This implosion is more typical of gb than kp.

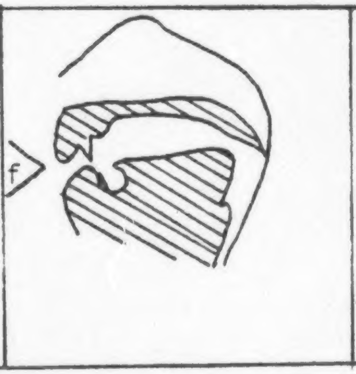
3. Picturing the Points of Articulation.

The following cross sections of the human vocal apparatus may prove useful in understanding how the various points of articulation are located.

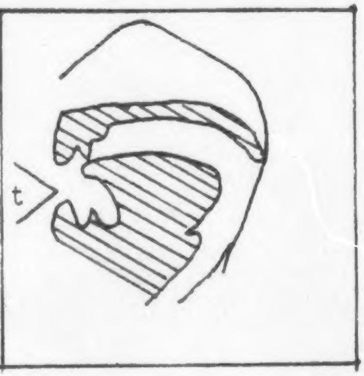

Nose
Nasal Passage
Teeth
Hard Palate
Soft Palate
Lip
Oral Passage
front mid back
Lip
Tongue
Root
Pharynx
Teeth
Larynx



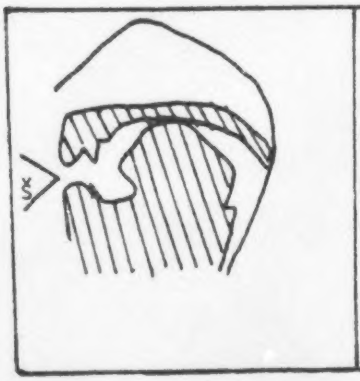
Bilabial Stop



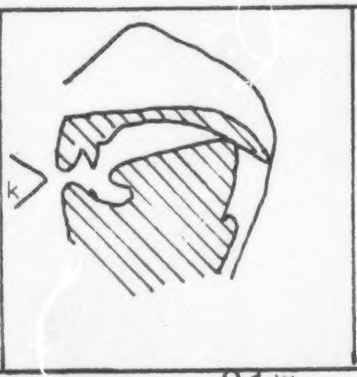
Labial-Dental



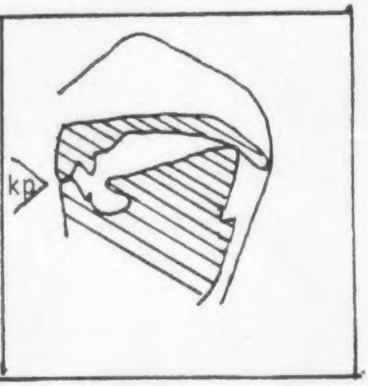
Dental



Palatal



Velar



Labio-Velar

4. Manner of Articulation

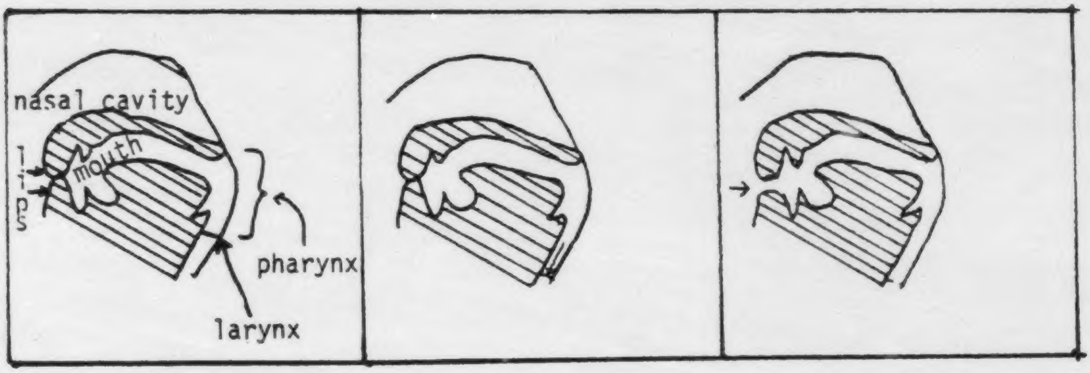
Sounds can also be classified by how they are produced at the point of articulation. This is called the manner of articulation.

4.1 Obstruents:

Obstruents are sounds which involve a radical obstruction of the air stream, either complete blockage as in stops or partial blockage as in fricatives. Obstruents may be either voiced or voiceless which means that the vocal cords are either vibrating or not respectively. You can detect the difference between voicing and nonvoicing either by putting your fingers on your larynx (Adam's apple) or in your ears while you are saying these sounds. You will no doubt notice that in English, the fricatives /f/ and /z/ are more heavily voiced than the stops /b, d and g/. This is because in English, the voiceless stops /p, t, and k/ are heavily aspirated. This means that they are followed by a puff of air (capable of blowing out a candle) which devoices the beginning of the following vowel. Because the aspiration also serves to distinguish English voiceless vowels, the voicing distinction is not crucial. Fortunately for English speakers, the voiceless obstruents of Mande are also aspirated, though not as heavily. The two sounds /č/ and /ǰ/ listed as palatal stops in the previous illustration are actually affricates. This means that phonetically they consist of a stop followed by a fricative [tš] and [dž] respectively. However because they function as a unit, they are given the unitary symbols /č/ and /ǰ/.

4.2 Implosives:

The normal manner of articulation involves the use of (egressive) air coming from the lungs. In the articulation of implosives, air is drawn into the mouth by creating a partial vacuum in the pharynx by first closing it off at either end by making a velar, dental or labial stop at one end and a gluttal stop (closing the larynx) at the other end. Then the pharynx is stretched by lowering the larynx and in so doing creating a partial vacuum in the pharynx. Thus when the stop is articulated, for a brief moment, air will rush into the mouth briefly giving it its distinctive sound before the egressive air from the lung resumes.



closure lowering release

The remaining set of consonants, the nasals, semi-consonants and semivowels are all voiced. Nasals can best be defined as voiced stops with the added feature of the opening up of the nasal passage.

The semi-consonants and the semivowels are like the nasals are resonant which means that there is less obstruction of the air stream than in the case of the stops and fricatives (known collectively as obstruents). The lack of obstruction allows the vocal tract to resonate giving the nasals, semi-consonants and semivowels their distinctive acoustical character.

Unlike the nasals where the resonance is produced in the nasal cavity, the resonance of the semi-segments is produced in the oral cavity. Semi-consonants are distinguished from semivowels in that semi-consonants are considered less obstructed or weakened consonants while the semivowels are considered more obstructed than true vowels.

4.3 Sonorants:

The remaining sets of consonants are called sonorant becuase in addition to having an oral obstruction of some sort they also have resonance. For example in the nasals, the way is opened for sound to move into the nasal cavity which is a resonant chamber. In the case of the liquid *l*, the air is permitted to escape around the sides of the tongue producing resonance. And finally, in the case of the semivowels /y/ and /w/ which are nonsyllabic vowels, (i and u respectively) the resonance is merely dampened. Sonorants, which also include all the vowels are generally voiced. All sonorants have the capacity to be syllabic. As pointed out above the syllabic equivalents of /y/ and /w/ are /i/ and /u/ respectively. Other syllabic sonorants can be marked by placing an apostrophe directly under the segment. In the Mande languages nasals are often syllabic as in Kpelle: ḿ̩búlú, Bande: ǹ̩dàmbángí. Lorma once had these sounds but they have since been lost.

4.4 Concluding Remarks

Much of what was presented here was quite technical and beyond what you really need to know to learn a Mande language. Yet it was presented for a number of reasons:

(1) it may help you to better understand how the consonant system of a language is structured

(2) that Mande languages are an interesting and fruitful area of scientific inquiry

(3) and because we thought you'd like to know.

E. MANDE SUPRASEGMENTALS

1. Classifications

In addition to consonants and vowels, a syllable may also posses a number of characteristic features called suprasegmentals. They are so called because their distinctiveness may transcend a single segment.

Features often considered to be suprasegmental are stress or syllable prominance, tone, vowel length and nasalization. Vowel length and nasalization have been presented in the section on vowels.

2. Stress

While stress is generally non-contrastive in Mande it is generally distinctive. In Kpelle, it falls on the first high-toned syllable in the word, or if the word has no high tones, it falls on the first syllable. Stress is acoustically marked by an increase in the loudness of the syllable and is often accompanied by a slight increase in the length of the syllable.

3. Tone

Tone in Mande is characterized by relative pitch. That is a high tone is relatively higher in pitch than a low tone and vice versa. No Mande language has more than three distinctive pitch levels. Kpelle and Mano have three: high, mid and low, while Lorma and Manya have two. The following contrasts are from Kpelle:

high	pɛ́lɛ́	'house'
mid	pēlē	'road'
low	bɛ̀lɛ̀	'trousers'

The remaining Mande languages have only two level tones, high and low. The above contrasts appear in Mende as follows:

high	pɛ́lɛ́	'house'
low high	pèlé	'road
low	bɛ̀lɛ̀	'trousers'

In Lorma due to some historical change, the tones of the above words are high, though the different words to exert an influence on the following word as the following examples show.

pɛ́lɛ́	'house'	pɛ́lɛ́nììnɛ̀	'new house'
pélé	'road'	pélénííné	'new road'
bɛ́lɛ́	'trousers'	bɛ́lɛ́niinɛ́	'new trousers'

3.1 Contour Tones

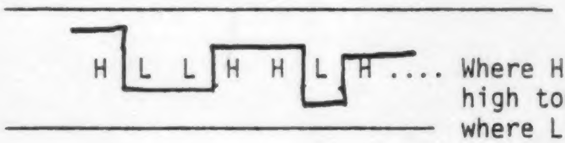
Contour tones are tones that actually rise or fall, rather than remain at the same pitch throughout the syllable. When these tones appear on a single syllable, they are written as follows:

falling	V̂	Kpelle:	ɓû	'owl'	Mende:	mbû	'owl'
rising	V̌	Kpelle:	mɔ̄lɔ̌ŋà	'rice'	Mende:	mbǎ	'rice'

Rising tones and falling tones are heard in Lorma as sentence level intonations. A comma or a question mark following a low tone will produce a rising tone. A period following a high tone will produce a falling tone. Since this is not a property of the word, and since the tonal influence is really marked by the punctuations, these rising and falling tones are not otherwise marked.

3.2 Down-Drift and Down-Step

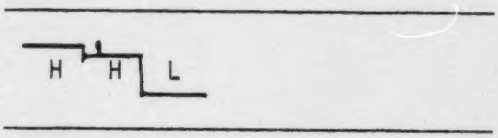
In most Mande languages there is some downdrift and downstep. Downdrift is a general condition where a high tone following a string of one or more low tones is not as high in absolute pitch as the high tone preceding the low tone. Graphically this condition can be shown as follows:



Where H represents a high toned syllable and where L represents a low toned syllable.

3.3 Downstep

Downstep is very much like downdrift except here the lowered high follows a high tone directly. It is as though the intervening low tones were lost. Downstepped high tones are marked with an apostrophy before the high-toned syllable as in the following graphic example:



Downstep is not found in Lorma and has only a limited distribution in Kpelle where it occurs only at the end of sentences.

4. Word Types

Although not strictly speaking suprasegmental, it is worth mentioning that Mande words have definite phonological shapes. As mentioned earlier Mande syllables tend to be open and preceded by a single consonant. Such a syllable structure can be represented as CV where consonants are represented by the symbol C and vowels by V.

Pronouns, postpositions and verbal particals tend to be monosyllabic while nouns and verbs tend to be bisyllabic; words containing more than two syllables are either borrowings or morphologically complex (composed of more than one word). Given these facts, the learner can say a lot about the nature of the word simply on the basis of its phonological shape.

F. LISTENING AND TRANSCRIPTION EXERCISES

The following exercises have been recorded on tape. They are constructed in such a way that you may either do them orally, by covering up the answer with a card, or you may practice writing down the answers either in the space provided, or preferably on a sheet of scratch paper. Please note, that while these exercises will give you a general ability to recognize and transcribe these sounds you will find that additional work will be necessary with your target language before you can hear them clearly.

The Vowels

1. e vrs ey (If the vowel is glided write /ey/ while if it is not, write /e/.

1.		ey
2.		e
3.		e
4.		ey
5.	b t	bet
6.	b t	beyt
7.	f l	feyl
8.	f l	fel
9.	p n	peyn
10.	p n	pen
11.	s m	sem
12.	s m	seym
13.	l	le
14.	l.	ley
15.	s s	sesey
16.	t l	teyle
17.	m m	meme
18.	k t	kete
19.	s	sey
20.	s	se

2. i vrs e

1. ______________ i
2. ______________ e
3. ______________ e
4. ______________ i
5. ____s_________ si
6. ____s_________ se
7. ____t_________ te
8. ____t_________ te
9. ____t_________ ti
10. ____l_________ le
11. ___l__________ li
12. ___p___l______ pele
13. ___p___l______ pili
14. ___p___z______ pize
15. ___p___z______ pizi
16. ___f___l______ fili
17. ___f___l______ feli
18. ___f___l______ file
19. ___l___p______ lepe
20. ___l___l______ lili

3. e vrs ɛ vrs i

1. ______________ e
2. ______________ e
3. ______________ ɛ
4. ______________ e
5. ______________ i
6. ______________ e
7. ______________ ɛ
8. ___s__________ se
9. ___s__________ sɛ
10. ___s__________ si
11. ___p___l______ pɛlɛ
12. ___p___l______ pele
13. ___p___l______ pili
14. ___p___l______ pile
15. ___p___l______ peli
16. ___p___l______ pɛlɛ
17. ___s___l______ selei
18. ___t___l______ tɛlɛi
19. ___t___l______ tilɛ
20. ___p___l______ pɛle

4. o vrs ow

1. ________ o
2. ________ ow
3. ________ ow
4. ________ o
5. g ________ go
6. g ________ gow
7. s ________ sow
8. s ________ so
9. t ________ tow
10. t ________ to
11. t n ________ town
12. t ________ to
13. f l ________ folo
14. f l ________ folow
15. k l ________ kolo
16. k l ________ kolei
17. k ________ koo
18. k ________ kow
19. m l ________ molo
20. b n ________ bono

5. o vrs u

1. ________ o
2. ________ u
3. ________ o
4. ________ o
5. ________ u
6. g ________ go
7. l ________ lo
8. l ________ lu
9. t l ________ tolo
10. p l ________ pulu
11. f l m ________ folomo
12. g l ________ gulu
13. g l ________ gulo
14. k l ________ kolo
15. k l ________ kolu
16. m l ________ mulu
17. m l ________ molu
18. n w ________ nowo
19. n w ________ nowu
20. t ________ too

6. o vrs ɔ vrs

1. ____________ o
2. ____________ ɔ
3. ____________ ɔ
4. ____________ o
5. ____________ o
6. ____________ ɔ
7. t __________ tɔ
8. t __________ to
9. g __________ go
10. g __________ gɔ
11. g l ________ gɔlɔ
12. k l ________ kɔlɔ
13. k l ________ kolo
14. g l ________ gulu
15. g l ________ gɔlɔ
16. t l ________ tɔlo
17. t l ________ tulo
18. t l ________ tolu
19. p l ________ pɔlu
20. p l ________ polu

7. a vrs ɔ

1. ____________ a
2. ____________ ɔ
3. ____________ a
4. ____________ ɔ
5. p __________ pa
6. p __________ pɔ
7. p l ________ pɔlɔ
8. p l ________ pala
9. t l ________ tɔla
10. t l ________ talɔ
11. t l ________ talai
12. p l ________ pɔlɔi
13. p l ________ pɔlu
14. p l ________ palu
15. p l ________ palo
16. p l ________ pola
17. p l ________ pɔla
18. p l ________ palɔ
19. k p ________ kɔpɔ
20. k p ________ kapa

8. ʌ vrs a vrs ë

1. ______________ a
2. ______________ ʌ
3. ______________ a
4. ______________ a
5. __b___________ ba
6. __b___________ bʌ
7. __b____l______ bala
8. __b____l______ bʌlʌ
9. __p____l______ pala
10. __p____l______ pʌlu
11. __t____l______ tala
12. __t____l______ tʌle
13. __t____l______ tëlë
14. __g____l______ gʌlʌ
15. __g____l______ gëlë
16. __g____l______ gala
17. __p___________ pa
18. __p___________ pë
19. __p___________ pʌ
20. __p___________ pë

9. ʌ vrs ë vrs ɨ

1. ______________ bʌ
2. ______________ bë
3. ______________ bɨ
4. ______________ gɨ
5. ______________ gë
6. ______________ gë
7. ______________ sʌ
8. ______________ së
9. ______________ së
10. ______________ sɨ
11. ______________ kɨ
12. ______________ kʌ
13. ______________ kɨ
14. ______________ kë
15. ______________ fë
16. ______________ fɨ
17. ______________ fʌ
18. ______________ fa
19. ______________ fë
20. ______________ tɨ

10. ʌ vrs ë vrs ɨ vrs e vrs ɛ

1. ______________ tɛlɛ
2. ______________ tʌlʌ
3. ______________ gele
4. ______________ gële
5. ______________ kili
6. ______________ kɨlɨ
7. ______________ kele
8. ______________ këlë
9. ______________ kʌlʌ
10. ______________ kɛlɛ
11. ______________ mʌ
12. ______________ mɛ
13. ______________ mi
14. ______________ mɨ
15. ______________ bë
16. ______________ ti
17. ______________ sʌ
18. ______________ fɨ
19. ______________ fɛ
20. ______________ gë

Mande Consonants

The following consonants should give you little difficulty and for that reason no drills are given: p, t, k, b, d, g, f, v, s, z, m, n, l, y and w.

11. kp vrs p vrs k

1. ______________ ka
2. ______________ pa
3. ______________ kpa
4. ______________ kpa
5. ______________ ka
6. ______________ pa
7. ______________ kpɛ
8. ______________ kɛ
9. ______________ pɛ
10. ______________ kpɛ
11. ______________ kpaka
12. ______________ pakpa
13. ______________ kapa
14. ______________ kpapa
15. ______________ kpiki
16. ______________ pike
17. ______________ kpolo
18. ______________ kulu
19. ______________ pulu
20. ______________ kpekpe

12. gb vrs g vrs b vrs kp

1. ________________ ba
2. ________________ ga
3. ________________ gɓa
4. ________________ gɓa
5. ________________ gɓɛ
6. ________________ bɛ
7. ________________ bɛ
8. ________________ gɛ
9. ________________ gu
10. ________________ bu
11. ________________ gɓu
12. ________________ bulu
13. ________________ gulu
14. ________________ gɓulu
15. ________________ saba
16. ________________ sagɓa
17. ________________ saga
18. ________________ taba
19. ________________ tokpo
20. ________________ tɔkpɔ

13. gb vrs b vrs b vrs g vrs kp

1. ________________ ga
2. ________________ gɓa
3. ________________ ɓa
4. ________________ gɓa
5. ________________ ɓa
6. ________________ ba
7. ________________ ɓɛ
8. ________________ bɛ
9. ________________ bɛ
10. ________________ ɓɛ
11. ________________ ɓo
12. ________________ gbo
13. ________________ kpoli
14. ________________ ɓoli
15. ________________ buli
16. ________________ gɓuli
17. ________________ ɓuli
18. ________________ kpuli
19. ________________ puli
20. ________________ ɓaɓa

14. d vrs ɗ (Kpelle only)

1. ______________ di
2. ______________ ɗi
3. ______________ ɗo
4. ______________ ɗu
5. ______________ du
6. ______________ dolo
7. ______________ dolo
8. ______________ tolo
9. ______________ dili
10. ______________ ɗili

15. mb, nd, nj, ŋg, ngb

1. ______________ ba
2. ______________ mba
3. ______________ de
4. ______________ nde
5. ______________ ye
6. ______________ nje
7. ______________ gu
8. ______________ ngu
9. ______________ gɓa
10. ______________ ngbu
11. ______________ mbi
12. ______________ ndi
13. ______________ ngi
14. ______________ ngbu
15. ______________ nji
16. ______________ banja
17. ______________ tanda
18. ______________ sungɔ
19. ______________ wundɔ
20. ______________ samba

16. p vrs β vrs v vrs f

1. ______________ pa
2. ______________ fa
3. ______________ va
4. ______________ fa
5. ______________ va
6. ______________ βa
7. ______________ fa
8. ______________ va
9. ______________ va
10. ______________ βa
11. ______________ βi
12. ______________ vi
13. ______________ vili
14. ______________ βili
15. ______________ fili
16. ______________ βulu
17. ______________ vulu
18. ______________ fɔlɔ
19. ______________ βɔlɔ
20. ______________ vɔlɔ

17. š vrs ž vrs č vrs ǰ

1. ______________ sa
2. ______________ ča
3. ______________ sa
4. ______________ či
5. ______________ ǰi
6. ______________ ǰe
7. ______________ že
8. ______________ še
9. ______________ se
10. ______________ še
11. ______________ zowo
12. ______________ žowo
13. ______________ sii
14. ______________ šii
15. ______________ čii
16. ______________ kpaza
17. ______________ masa
18. ______________ tiča
19. ______________ baǰi
20. ______________ žošo

18. ɣ vrs g

1. ______________ ga
2. ______________ ga
3. ______________ ɣa
4. ______________ ɣa
5. ______________ ɣi
6. ______________ ɣu
7. ______________ gu
8. ______________ ɣu
9. ______________ ɣe
10. ______________ ɣɔ
11. ______________ saɣa
12. ______________ gaɣa
13. ______________ ɣili
14. ______________ gili
15. ______________ ɣale
16. ______________ ɣale
17. ______________ paɣa
18. ______________ paga
19. ______________ paɣɔ
20. ______________ pagɔ

Suprasegmental Drills

19. Long vrs Short Vowels

1. ______________ babaa
2. ______________ baaba
3. ______________ sasasaa
4. ______________ saasasa
5. ______________ sasaasaa
6. ______________ sɔɔla
7. ______________ teveea
8. ______________ masagii
9. ______________ fiibɛɛ
10. ______________ saagɔ
11. ______________ tilaa
12. ______________ tiilaa
13. ______________ tasaata
14. ______________ kpaasagii
15. ______________ mukulu
16. ______________ maanɛɛvɛ
17. ______________ niinɛi
18. ______________ bɔvɛlaale
19. ______________ kooligii
20. ______________ pagɔ

20. Nasalized vrs Oral Vowels

1. ______________ ba
2. ______________ bã
3. ______________ babã
4. ______________ bãba
5. ______________ lamãã
6. ______________ lamaa
7. ______________ lãmaa
8. ______________ lamaa
9. ______________ tɔlĩlĩ
10. ______________ tutita
11. ______________ kãlã
12. ______________ kala
13. ______________ põõ
14. ______________ pɛ̃ɛ̃soe
15. ______________ mãdigo
16. ______________ sɔ̃ɔ̃ti
17. ______________ wĩĩgii
18. ______________ pɔkɔpa
19. ______________ pivugii
20. ______________ mũlũba

21. High Tone vrs Low Tone

1. ______________ bábá
2. ______________ bábà
3. ______________ bàbá
4. ______________ bàbà
5. ______________ bábà
6. ______________ títí
7. ______________ tìtì
8. ______________ kùlú
9. ______________ kúlù
10. ______________ kúlú
11. ______________ tátàtá
12. ______________ tátátà
13. ______________ tàtátá
14. ______________ tàtátà
15. ______________ tàtàtà
16. ______________ kákátá
17. ______________ tákákà
18. ______________ màmámá
19. ______________ màmámà
20. ______________ kúlùkú

22. High Tone, Low Tone and Downstep

1. ____________ bábá
2. ____________ bábà
3. ____________ báꜝbá
4. ____________ bábàꜝbá
5. ____________ bábàbá
6. ____________ kòꜝkókó
7. ____________ kòꜝkóꜝkó
8. ____________ kúꜝlúlù
9. ____________ fúlúꜝfú
10. ____________ pùlìgì
11. ____________ tàꜝtátá
12. ____________ tàꜝtátà
13. ____________ tátátá
14. ____________ tátáꜝtá
15. ____________ táꜝtátá
16. ____________ kákáꜝtà
17. ____________ tákàꜝtá
18. ____________ málálá
19. ____________ gáꜝlíꜝgá
20. ____________ púꜝlúlúꜝlú

23. High, Low, Rising, Falling

1. ____________ bábà
2. ____________ bábâ
3. ____________ bábá
4. ____________ bàbá
5. ____________ bàbǎ
6. ____________ bàbâ
7. ____________ bâbà
8. ____________ bábâ
9. ____________ bǎbá
10. ____________ bǎbǎ
11. ____________ tátátâ
12. ____________ tátâtà
13. ____________ tâtàtà
14. ____________ tàtàtǎ
15. ____________ tǎtátá
16. ____________ tàtǎá
17. ____________ táàtá
18. ____________ tàtàá
19. ____________ tátàà
20. ____________ tàátàá